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THE STORY OF AMERICA

CONTAINING

THE ROMANTIC INCIDENTS OF HISTORY, FROM THE
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA TO THE
PRESENT TIME.

WRITTEN BY

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"THE EXECUTIONER OF THE REVOLUTION," "A STORY OF BLOCK ISLAND," "GRIZEL
COCHRAN," "THE VOYAGEUR," "MICAH ROOD," AND
OTHER HISTORIC TALES.

CONTRIBUTOR TO

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DAUGHTERS OF AMERICA, AND MANY
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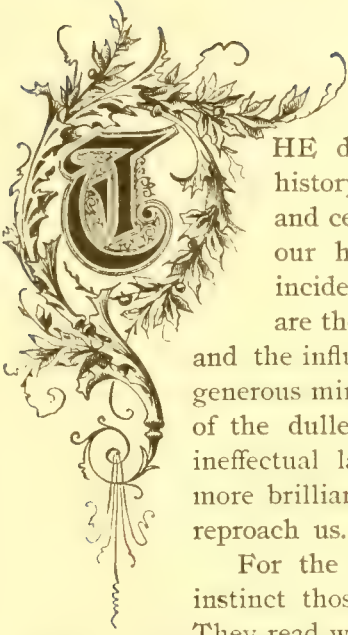
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Preface.



THE desire throughout, in the writing of this history, has been to record the heroic adventures and celebrate the picturesque incidents that make our history romantic and memorable. Such incidents as awaken patriotism and enthusiasm are those which are most worthy of preservation, and the influences they have upon the imaginative and generous minds of the young are incalculable. If some of the duller pages of the congressional debate and ineffectual law making have been neglected for these more brilliant chapters, it is not the young who will reproach us.

For the minds of the young select with unerring instinct those things which are of actual importance. They read with passionate tears of the martyrdom of the devoted; they are fired with heroism and lofty pride at the accomplishments of the heroic, and they condemn with bitter contempt the intrigues of the mean, and the cowardice of the time-serving. To arouse the noble impulse, and keep alive the love for patriotism, fidelity, bravery, and true holiness, has been the aim of the book.

It contains little that is new; but it has been sifted from the best histories, and the latest ones. It is, however, the first book to record the events of the last ten years, and these events it has tried to deal with impartially, unblinded by the conflict of parties, sects, or factions. If injustice has been done in any way, it has been unwitting. If it conveys, in understandable language, the most memorable occasions of our national history, condemning and praising where condemnation and praise are due, then it has accomplished all that it aimed to for its young readers.

ELIA W. PEATTIE.

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THE RIVER TIME.

BENJAMIN F. TAYLOR

Oh! a wonderful stream is the river Time,
As it runs through the realm of tears,
With a faultless rhythm and a musical rhyme
And a broader sweep and a surge sublime,
As it blends in the ocean of years!

How the winters are drifting, like flakes of snow,
And the summers, like birds, between,
And the years in the sheaf, how they come and go
On the river's breast, with its ebb and its flow,
As it glides in the shadow and sheen!

There's a magical isle up the river Time,
Where the softest of winds are playing
There's a cloudless sky and a tropical clime,
And a song as sweet as a vesper chime,
And the Junes with the roses are straying.

And the name of this isle is the "Long Ago,"
And we bury our treasures there;
There are brows of beauty, and bosoms of snow,
There are heaps of dust—oh! we loved them so—
There are trinkets and tresses of hair.

There are fragments of songs that nobody sings,
There are parts of an infant's prayer;
There's a lute unswept, and a harp without strings,
There are broken vows and pieces of rings,
And the dresses that *she* used to wear!

There are hands that are waved when the fairy shore
By the fitful mirage is lifted in air,
And we sometimes hear, through the turbulent roar,
Sweet voices we heard in the days gone before,
When the wind down the river was fair.

Oh! remembered for aye be that blessed isle,
All the day of our life until night;
And when evening glows with its beautiful smile,
And our eyes are closing in slumbers awhile,
May the Greenwood of soul be in sight.



THE STORY OF AMERICA.

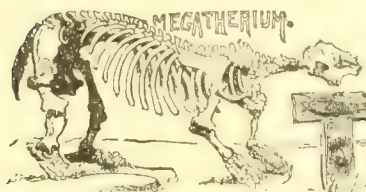


COLUMBUS' TRIGUTENS THE INDIANS INTO LENDING HIM ASSISTANCE BY FORETELLING AN
ECLIPSE OF THE MOON—ONE OF THEIR DEITIES.

CHAPTER I.

Mastodons and Mystery.

EARLIEST INHABITANTS—THE MOUND-BUILDERS—THE AMERICAN INDIANS.



THE plans of God are very wide. No nation may have the right to say, "We are the people, and wisdom shall die with us." Traces are left of so many great and perished nations, that we are constantly reminded that a thousand years is but as a day in His sight, and that the work and progress we are so proud of may disappear and leave but little hint of us by which the coming race may guess what we were like.

In the skeletons of the huge animals called the Mastodons and Mammoths, which once roved this country, and which have ceased to exist for so many thousand years, there are found flint arrow-heads, which must have been made by men who lived in that time, and by which these wild and terrible creatures were slain. Besides the many animals which belonged entirely to that age, and which there is nothing like now, there were many then upon this continent which we read of now only in foreign countries. The monkey was here in what we call United States, and the camel and rhinoceros. What the character was of the people who lived at that time it is impossible to guess.

The first race which has left any distinct traces of itself was the Mound-builders, and it hardly seems as if they could have lived at the time of the Mastodon, for they made pictures of all the things about them, and among those pictures there is nothing which resembles these huge animals. This race of men was not savage, in one sense of the word. They worked hard, a thing which the savage seldom does. They had skill, and loved the beautiful. They are called the Mound-builders, because they have left behind them thousands of immense mounds; some curved, some square, some in the shape of a snake. Sometimes these earthworks have from fourteen to sixteen miles of embankment. Some look as if they may have been the dwelling-places

of their kings. Others seem as if they may have protected temples or altars where they worshipped.

This people understood the smelting of ores, and mining. Their pottery was far from rude, and their implements of warfare very serviceable. They buried their great men under huge pyramids of dirt, but the common people, to judge from the great stack of bones which had been found in parts of the country, were doubtless thrown together and left in the open air. At the time they lived, this country must have been thickly populated. It must have taken millions of men to do what they did. No one can guess what became of them, or why they left the possessions upon which they had spent so much time and labor. They disappeared many years before the American Indians roamed through our forests.

The American Indians, as the European discoverers of this country found them, were not the race that we know. They were said to be well formed, winning, gentle and trustful. They were gracious in their speech and friendly in their manner, with soft, brown bodies, and delicate movements. They had little strength for work, but great endurance in running. Here they lived, free as birds, without need of much work, with no cares, no sorrows except natural ones, until the civilized warriors drove them west, and ever west, setting an example of treachery and cruelty which the Indians were not slow to follow.

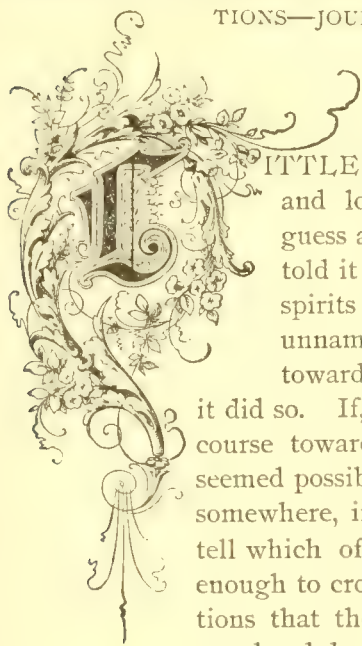
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Squire and Davis' "Ancient Monuments."
 Baldwin's "Ancient America."
 Foster's "Prehistoric Races of America."
 Drake's "Aboriginal Races of North America."
 Jones' "Mound Builders of Tennessee."
 Shaler's "Time of the Mammoths."
 "American Naturalist," iv: 148.
- FICTION—Matthew's "Behemoth. A Legend of the Mound-Builders."

CHAPTER II.

The Legendary Century.

THE FIRST DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA—MYTHS, LEGENDS AND TRADITIONS—JOURNEY OF THE NORSEMEN.



LITTLE children, standing on the shores of Europe and looking toward the west, could make no guess at what lay beyond the water. They were told it was the "dark water," from which all the spirits and goblins came, things unknown and unnamable. The winds seemed always to blow toward the west. Even the mariners believed that

it did so. If, by any chance, a sailor drifted out of his course toward the west, he was filled with alarm. It seemed possible to him that the waters might run off, somewhere, into a terrible nothingness. It is hard to tell which of the nations first found men courageous enough to cross these unknown waters. There are traditions that the Chinese did so, and that these Buddhists wandered down to the California shore, and went deep into the country that we now know as Mexico. There

are traditions, too, that the Breton fishermen cast their lines upon the Newfoundland coast. It is certainly true that North American Indians have been met with whose languages were mixed with French. The Welshmen also claim that a number of their countrymen came to North America and settled there. The traditions concerning this are peculiarly romantic. Two brothers, David and Medoc, quarreled for the throne of Wales. The younger gave up his right, and, fitting out a ship, sailed west. The next year he returned, and said that he had found a fruitful country. He called upon his friends to follow him, and filled ten ships with men, women and children. They sailed away, and were never heard of again. Five times in American writings there are references to them. They are described as a race of white Indians,

using many Welsh words, and having a manuscript copy of the Bible, in the Welsh language, with them. The last reference to them speaks of their living among the upper courses of the Missouri.

But the journeys of the Northmen to America are well known. These Northmen were splendid seamen, and splendid fighters. They had been all over the known world. They had frightened even the great emperor, Charlemagne, in France, and had put their horses in his palace. Wherever they went they seemed to conquer, until at last they were driven from Scotland. Then, on the melancholy island of Iceland, they made their republic. Two-thirds of the year they lived in twilight. Books were their consolation, the sea their play-ground. It was no wonder that they went this way and that, wherever their fancy prompted, and wherever they felt they could fight with weaker

men. They discovered Greenland, and settled a village there; then in strange, strong, if not fleet ships, went coasting further south. It was Bjarne Herjulfson, with his crew, who first coasted—driven by adverse winds—along the coast of Nar-ragansett Bay, Newfoundland



A VIKING BOAT, FOUND IN DENMARK

and Nova Scotia. He went back to Iceland with the tales of what he had seen. "What," cried Erik the Red, a wild Norseman, who had been banished from his native country for murder, "you saw a new country like that, with green fields and trees, and never put a foot on it?" He talked so much, and so long and loud on the subject, that his son, Leif Erikson, made up his mind to find out what kind of lands these were which were so much talked about. He bought Bjarne's ship from him, took thirty-five good seamen, and went far away to the southwest. They landed in Newfoundland, which they called Helluland, and in Nova Scotia, which they termed Markland. They looked about these countries a little, gave them names, and sailed away, and were two days at sea before they saw land again. Then they sailed into a sound. It was a beautiful place. There were larger salmon there than they had ever seen, and grass, which looked wonderful to these men from a barren country. They found luscious grapes growing wild, grapes from which wine could be made with wonderful ease, and a German among them named it Vinland. We have changed the name very little. We call it Martha's Vinyard now. This was in the year 1000.



CH. 11. 3

COLUMBUS AND HIS SON BEGGING.

Designed and engraved expressly for THE STORY OF AMERICA



When Leif Erikson reached home, his brother made the complaint that he had brought home much too little news. "You may go in my ship, brother, to Vinland, if you like," said Leif, and thus Thorbald, in 1002, went to Vinland, and stayed there three years. It is thought that the skeleton in armor, found near Fall River, in Massachusetts, in 1831, was that of Thorbald, who was killed by a poisoned arrow from Indians. Skraellings, the Norsemen called the Indians, because they were so scrawny, compared to themselves; and, indeed, there are traditions, among the eastern Indians, of the great, fair giants, who had come to the eastern shore, which shows that there must have been a great difference in the stature of the Norsemen and the red men. In 1005, the last son of Erik the Red started to Vinland, to try and fetch the body of his brother Thorbald. His ship was blown out of its course, and he never reached his destination. Then came Thorfinn Karlsfenn, with his handsome wife, Gudrid, and with them one hundred and fifty-one men and seven women. For three years they lived at Vinland, and, perhaps built the tower that still stands in Newport, and wrote the inscriptions on the blocks near the Taunton river. The constant fights with the Indians decided them at last to leave their beautiful bay and go back to Iceland. They carried with them little Snorre, the first child of European blood born in America. Snorre was three years old when they took him back to Iceland, a little blue-eyed boy with golden hair. There are stories of other journeys by the Norsemen, in the years 1011 and 1121, and accounts of their going as far south, along the Atlantic coast, as to what we now call Florida. It is believed that the Welshmen came later than this, in 1170. The tower which stands at Newport, which is the only substantial monument that the Norsemen left of their visits, is low and round. It has two windows and a fire-place, and the cement with which the stones are put together is still strong, and but for the fact that the roof is gone, it could hardly be called a ruin. It is covered with ivy now, and serves the purpose of amusing the chance tourist. Longfellow has made this tower the subject of his poem, "The Skeleton in Armor." Perhaps it was Thorfinn Karlsfenn who was his hero, and the "viking wild."

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY**—Leland's "Fusang, Discovery of America by Chinese"
 "America not Discovered by Columbus."
 Bowen's "America Discovered by the Welsh."
 Anderson's "Discovery of America by Norsemen."
 Beal's "Buddhist Records of the Western World."
FICTION—Ballantyne's "Norsemen of the West."
POETRY—Whittier's "Norsemen."
 Longfellow "Skeleton in Armor."
 Montgomerie's "Vinland."

CHAPTER III.

The Dreamer of Genoa.

COLUMBUS AND HIS VOYAGES—AMERIGO VESPUCCI—THE CABOTS.



WEAVING cloth or combing wool patiently in Genoa, there lived in the fifteenth century an Italian by the name of Columbo. In the year 1435 his son was born, whom he named Cristoforo. Perhaps the comber of wool in his dull shop used to dream of the sea, and the delights and freedom of it. There could have been little other reason for his sending the little Columbus to school, at ten, to study navigation. At fourteen, this restless Italian boy went to sea, and from that time till he died, he never left it, unless, indeed, it was to draw charts for other seamen. He loved books, too, and read much. He read the books of great scholars, and it is more than possible that some of these planted in his mind the idea that the world was round—an idea which was to double Christian civilization. Christopher went on numerous voyages with the celebrated admiral of his time, who bore the same family name, Columbo, and it is thought he may have traveled with a certain wild corsair, named Colon. The years between 1470 and 1484 Christopher spent in Portugal. Everyone was talking about the discovery of new lands. The Portuguese seamen were going down the African coast. Prince Henry was making presents of islands to his navigators, and he gave the island of Porto Santo, of the Madeira group, to a man named Prestrello. Columbus married the daughter of this man, and on the island of Porto Santo was born Columbus' son, Diego.

It was not the children alone who wondered about the great, dark water. The Spanish seamen were vastly curious. It seemed to them that the earth was a flat surface, with this great river of water running

around the land. Like the children, they were terrified by the thought of what might be on the other side. A few scholars thought that it might be a sphere, but they never dreamed that it could be large enough for more than one continent; so it seemed quite simple to them, that if it was a sphere, it would be possible, by sailing westward, to reach Asia—the land from which the luxurious merchants of Spain and Portugal brought their richest wares; the land from which the spices came, the silks and the inlaid work, the gold and jewels.



COLUMBUS.

The Yanez portrait, Madrid Library.

Certain of these learned men, among them Toscanelli, the Italian, corresponded with Columbus. They drew up charts with his help, and laid out the plan by which one might cross into India, and Tartary, and Cathay. Columbus was a great dreamer, and these plans filled him with wild visions. He thought of nothing and talked of nothing else. He talked with sailors who had found pine trees washed upon the Madeira coast, where no pine trees grew, and those who had seen tropical cane

stalks upon the European beaches. He was restless and excited; he could never keep still. He even went to Iceland, and it is possible that he talked there with the descendants of the men who had been at Vineland. Gudrid, too, had been at Rome, and it may be that she left traditions there of the three years which she had spent in the beautiful country across the water. Though Columbus could interest many people with



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

tales of all he fancied, and all he hoped, it was difficult to win the hearing of those who could give him help. It is said that he went, or sent, to King Henry VII, of England, with the hope of gaining his assistance. It is almost certain that he tried to get the help of the King of Portugal, and it is possible that he sought the aid of

some of the cities of his own country, Italy. At last his wife died. He took his boy, Diego, and seems to have wandered about, in a desolate way, for a year. One day he went with Diego to the Franciscan convent of Santa Maria de la Rabida, asking for bread. He interested the prior, and the prior in turn interested a gentleman of importance, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and he carried letters of credit with him from these persons to Cordova, where the king and queen were. But King Ferdinand was busy, and it was a long time before he could listen to Columbus. For seven years, or at the very least five, Columbus hung around the Spanish court. The courtiers laughed at him, and Isabella and Ferdinand seemed to have little confidence in his plans. At last, a day came when Columbus was treated with such contempt that he burst into a sudden fit of rage, flung himself out of the court, and, taking to his horse, rode toward France. Isabella, fearing both that the kingdom might have lost a good thing, and that Columbus' feelings were severely hurt, sent after him. He was brought back, and in three months an expedition was ready to sail, part of which was fitted out at the credit of Isabella's own kingdom, Castile. It was not very strange that the sailors were afraid to go. How could they tell what they were running into? They had to be driven to their task by force; but at last Columbus left with three ships—the Santa Maria, the Pinta, and the Nina. The Santa Maria was ninety-six feet long and carried sixty-six seamen. It was decked all over, and had four masts—two with square sails and two with lateen sails. The other vessels were smaller and without decks. They all carried provisions for a year, and Columbus had with him an agreement signed by Ferdinand and Isabella, by which he was made High Admiral and Viceroy in these lands, and given one-eighth of the possible profits in return for the eighth of the costs which he advanced. Columbus hardly knew how to show his happiness. He vowed that if there were any profits, they should be used to free the Holy Sepulchre from the Moslems; so, with much hope, and many prayers, he left with his discontented sailors, leaving his son in care of the royal household.

It was on the third of August, 1492, that Columbus and his men sailed from Palos. In a month they had reached the Canary Islands. After that they passed many desolate days on the water, with the sailors discontented at day and weeping at night. It took all of the tact that Columbus had at his command to quiet them. Once the sailors plotted to throw Columbus overboard, but he was keen and watchful, and, above all, a man of prayer, and his stern dignity of character held them in

check. At length, however, he was obliged to tell them that he would turn back if they saw no land within three days. The anxiety which he felt can be imagined. Was it possible that he would be forced to give up his long-nursed hopes and forego the glory of discovery, and all because of a handful of fearful and ignorant sailors? But the outcome was as strange as a miracle. In the morning of the third day, a sailor, standing aloft with his seaman's glass, espied land. The joy-guns were fired, to let the men upon the other vessels know of this wondrous fact. They sailed all day toward land. Anchor was cast over night, and the following morning they rowed Columbus to the shore, with music and waving banners, and, highest of all, the great flag of Spain, all red and gold. With him came his captains, with green flags, which bore the cross upon them. The island he called Guanahani. It is thought it may have been the island we call San Salvador, but this is not certain. It was a flat island, with a shallow lake in the centre, and not especially inviting, so the men sailed on and visited Cuba, Hayti and other of the West India islands. He did not doubt but that he had found the eastern extremity of Cathay.

He was not a little proud when he went back to Spain, and the reason that he stopped at Portugal may have been to let the king know all that he had lost, in not giving him a chance to find these new dominions for him. In Spain, he was received with much honor, and, when he started back for the new land, he had seventeen vessels and 1,500 men. On this journey he discovered the Windward Islands, part of Jamaica and Porto Rico, and founded his colony in Hayti. Hayti he called Little Spain, or Hispanola. In the winter of 1497-98, Amerigo Vespucci, a friend of Columbus, succeeded in some manner in obtaining ships, by which he reached the mainland of the new continent. Everyone was going to the "New Spain" who could possibly get there. All of the men who had laughed at Columbus before, seemed now to be trying to get as much of his territory and honor away from him as possible. Those who had sneered, "Look at the Admiral of Mosquitoland," and who had made light of Columbus' discovery because he brought home so little treasure, were, nevertheless, glad to start out to find what they could. If Amerigo made this voyage, as he said he did, he touched upon the mainland before any other Spaniard. In the same year John Cabot, a merchant, born at Venice, but living in England, also went to America, and touched upon the coast of Labrador. Sebastian Cabot, a son of John, a year later (1498) sailed with two ships and three hundred men. In his second voyage, he became persuaded



SEBASTIAN CABOT AT LABRADOR.

that the land which they had found was not Asia. He discovered Hudson's Bay upon his third voyage. He loved the sea always, and lived upon it as long as he had strength. Meanwhile, Columbus, his mind still filled with visions, and believing that he was inspired of God, went upon his third journey. With his six ships, he reached the mainland of South America. Touching at his colony of Hispanola, he found his people quarrelling bitterly, and much dissatisfied with his government as admiral. He was arrested by Bobadilla, a Spanish commissioner, and carried on board ship in chains. These he wore till he reached Spain, although his captors would willingly have taken them off. The chains had the effect which he had expected; the monarchs were ashamed, the people horrified. He was released. He wished then to keep his vow, to wrest the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels, but Ferdinand and Isabella would not permit him to do so. Then he asked to go once more to America. He was given four vessels, and took with him his brother, and his younger son, Fernando. By the time they had reached the American coast, Columbus was ill. He lay upon the deck, and watched the land as the ship sailed around by Honduras, for they had passed beyond the islands. He tried several times to found a colony, but the Indians were shy and crafty, and very naturally resented the invasion of their land. Two of his ships were lost. His crew mutinied, and no one would send him any relief. At last he went back to Spain, only to find his friend, Isabella, dead. He died on May 20, 1506, with the chains he had worn upon his return to Spain hung by his bed-side. They were put in his coffin, and he was buried with the monument: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a new world." About two centuries after that his remains were carried to the cathedral of Havana, that they might lie in the soil of the new world which he had found.

It was better for his peace of mind that he never knew that the land he reached after so much suffering of mind and body, was to bear the name of another man. But, after all, justice will always be done in the Lord's good time, and, in the minds of everyone, America is the monument of Columbus, and not of Amerigo Vespucci.

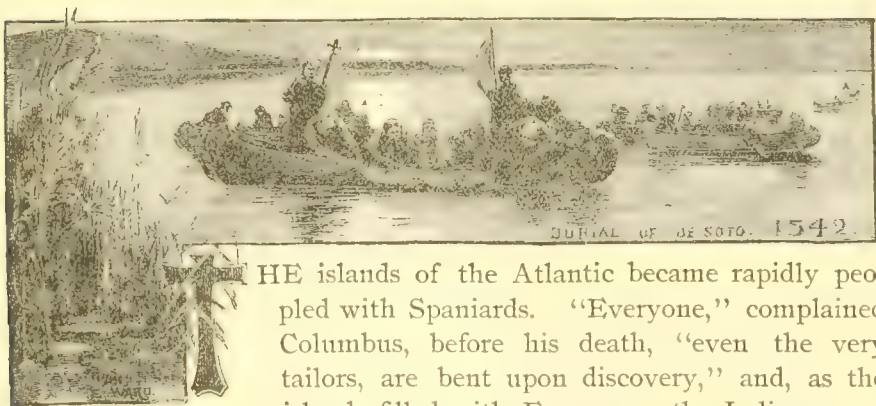
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico"
 BIOGRAPHY—W. Irving's "Columbus"
 W. Irving's "Companions of Columbus."
 Dexter's "Letters of Columbus and Vespucci."
 TRAVELS—Hakluyt's "Voyages."
 Kohl's "Discoverers of the East Coast of America."
 FICTION—Bird's "Calavar" and "Infidel."
 Wallace's "Fair God."
 POETRY—Barlow's "Columbiad"
 Lowell's "Columbus."
 Rogers' "Columbus."
 Sir Aubrey De Vere's "Sonnets on Columbus."

CHAPTER IV.

Across the Dark Water.

PONCE DE LEON—THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH—THE DISCOVERY OF THE
SOUTH SEA BY BALBOA—DE SOTO—HIS DEATH.



THE islands of the Atlantic became rapidly peopled with Spaniards. "Everyone," complained Columbus, before his death, "even the very tailors, are bent upon discovery," and, as the islands filled with Europeans, the Indians were crowded out. The manner in which they were killed, and the awful sufferings they endured at the hands of men who called themselves Christians, is told most pathetically in the chronicles of Las Casas, one of the few friends which these unhappy people had. They were carried to Spain as slaves, or worked with cruelty upon the new possessions in the Atlantic. The tender-hearted old man, Las Casas, made the mistake, in his firm defence of the Indians, of advising the young king, who then reigned over Spain, to let each resident in Hispanola bring a dozen negro slaves from the African coast; and it was thus, in about 1518, that negro slavery was first introduced in America.

Juan Ponce De Leon, a gay and courteous cavalier, who had been with Columbus on his second voyage, had made up his mind to go to the countries of the new world upon his own account. It was in 1513 that he set sail, with three caravels well fitted with men. He had been a brave soldier and a very active man, and hated, as all such men must do, the thought of growing old. His ambition was to maintain his youth, and he was filled with the pleasant stories of some luscious fountain of clear water in the new world, from which all men might

MEETING BETWEEN DE SOUS AND THE INDIAN CHILDREN



drink and become eternally young. He was made Governor of the island of Porto Rico, but even this honor would not tempt him to rest. He pushed on westward in search of the wonderful fountain, and at last, on Easter Sunday, he saw land. The Spaniards called Easter Sunday the day of flowers, and Ponce De Leon named the new land Florida. He landed near what is now St. Augustine, and, with his men, went about the woods and coasts there for many weeks. Five years later he came back again, and was wounded with a poisoned arrow, and went sadly back to his country to die. He had escaped old age, but not by drinking from the fountain of youth.

Vasco Nunez de Balboa, an adventurous Spaniard, was the first to cross the isthmus which divides North and South America. Looking down from a mountain, he saw the great western ocean stretching before him. He called it the South Sea, and took possession of it in the name of his Christian Majesty, the King of Spain. Meanwhile, Cortez was exploring in Yucatan and Mexico. By this time the King of Portugal deeply regretted that he had not accepted the services of Columbus when they were first offered to him. He grew envious of the rich possessions of Spain, and fitted out ships in 1519, under the leadership of Magellan, a sailor of wide experience, and a man whom the king counted among the greatest of his realm. Magellan passed the Indies and bore southward, sailing entirely around South America, marveling at the "mountain of fire," and rejoicing over the placid world of water which rolled in peaceful majesty before them. He named it the Pacific Ocean, because of its tranquility.

The unhappy relations between the Indians and the Europeans grew worse, instead of better. The white man gave the Indian lessons in treachery, which he was not slow to profit by. A party of gentle St. Dominican Brothers, who had come to America to make a "conquest of peace" among the savages, were captured, upon their landing, and brutally murdered. It was too late for kindness to be understood—too late for the word of the white man to be believed.

In 1519, a planter named D'Allyon, a man of wealth and high family, came to the American coast in search of slaves. He landed where South Carolina now is, and, kidnapping natives there, put them in the Spanish slave markets. His adventurous nature would have made him of much value to his country, but he fell a victim to his own evil works. On his second voyage he was murdered by the angry Indians. Eight years after this, an expedition in quest of gold was led out from the West Indies by Pamphilo de Narvaez. He and his

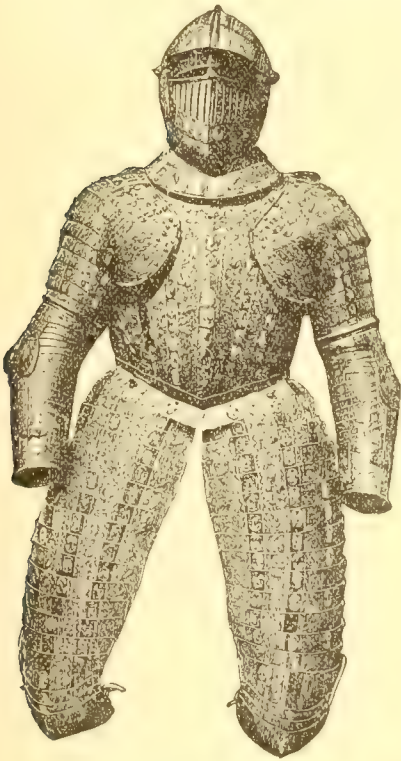
companions landed near Tampa Bay, and went westward along the Gulf of Mexico. The sufferings of Narvaez' men were very great. Their number rapidly decreased. They were restless with the spirit of adventure, and were not willing to settle down and wrench a living from the soil. Cuba put forward every effort to find the men, but was not successful. All but four of them died. These four were made slaves by the Indians, and wandered from tribe to tribe for six years. They came out at last near the Gulf of California. But it was a long time before they were heard from.



A SPANISH SOLDIER

Hernando De Soto held a grant of the province of Florida from the crown of Spain, and landed not far from the spot where his fated predecessors had in Tampa Bay. This was on May 30, 1537. He was very ambitious, and wished to found a great empire, over which he should rule. Blinded with ambition, he had no pity for any one. In all that he did he was fierce and shamefully cruel. Following him was

a splendid retinue of noblemen. They were tricked out in the most fashionable costumes of Spain, and glittering with inlaid armor, which recalled the magnificence of the crusades. None but a leader of iron will could have governed men so proud and ambitious. He took his companions through the lakes, streams and everglades of Florida. They lived upon water-cresses, shoots of Indian corn and palmetto leaves. Their policy was to fight the natives wherever they met them—an odd policy for men whose chief boast was their Christianity. Wherever



SPANISH ARMOR.

they went, they left behind them burned wigwams and aching hearts. Once, De Soto was met by a certain Indian chieftainess. She was a graceful young savage, with courteous manners, and went to meet De Soto in a canopied canoe, carrying gifts with her, among them a necklace of pearls, which she flung about the neck of the Spanish leader. But her people were used as slaves, and herself taken prisoner in spite of her gentleness. De Soto still went westward. He sent men to explore for gold, and took all the treasures from the Indians which he could find. He went up the Mississippi for some distance, and then westward, nearly to the Rocky Mountains. After his return to his post, in trying to force an opening through the swamps about the Mississippi river, he sickened and died. He was dropped, in the silence of the night, into the deep waters of the Mississippi, the victim of his own stubborn pride, for

he could have had help and rescue had he been willing to accept it; but he refused to take his men back, shorn of their fine trappings and lessened in numbers. A few of his men, long months afterwards, reached the settlement of their countrymen on the Gulf of Mexico.

The Spaniards in the north of Mexico were greatly excited when the four unfortunate men who had escaped from the expedition of Narvaez reached them, with wonderful stories of the countries they had

seen. They told of stately cities, in which there were buildings of stone and a great quantity of jewels, besides silver and gold in plenty. In a short time an expedition was sent to explore this country, going up the coast of California, and exploring part of the Colorado river. They found the well-built cities, but the gold, silver and jewels were in small quantities. Later, a Spanish explorer name Cabrillo, went up the Pacific coast as far as Oregon. Following him came Sir Francis Drake, the celebrated English voyager. The history of his exploits is not full, but it is known that he was received pleasantly by the natives, and, after a brief exploration, crossed the ocean to the East Indies. England, however, never claimed California on the score of Drake's discovery. In the year 1580, an expedition of travelers followed up the river Del Norte, and made a settlement upon the site of the present city of Santa Fe. This expedition was under Onate. That city, with one exception (St. Augustine), is the oldest in the United States.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Parkman's "Pioneers of France."
 Parkman's "France and England in North America."
 Reynold's "Old St. Augustine."
 Baird's "Huguenot Emigration to America."
 Jones' "De Soto and His March Through Georgia."
 FICTION—Summ's "Damsel of Darien," "Vasconselas" and "The Lily and the Totem."
 DRAMA—Mrs. L. S. McCord's "De Soto."
 POETRY—Butterworth's "Dream of Ponce de Leon."

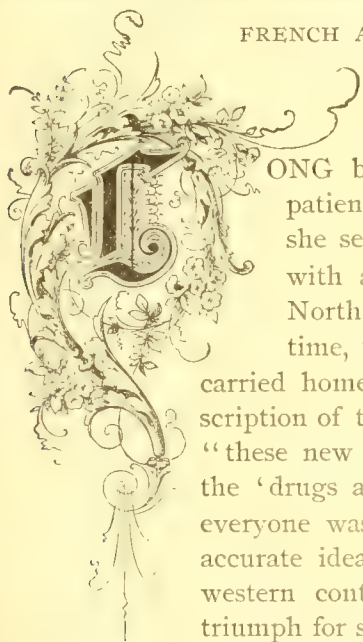


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CHAPTER V.

The Lilies of France.

FRANCE: HER EXPLORERS AND SETTLEMENTS—THE FIGHT BETWEEN
FRENCH AND SPANISH COLONIES.



LONG before this time, France was growing impatient to have a foothold in the new world; so she sent westward a mariner, named Verazzano, with a single ship. He reached the shore of North Carolina, and followed it southward for a time, trading with the Indians as he went. He carried home full accounts of what he saw, and a description of the Indians and their ways, and said that "these new countries were not altogether destitute of the 'drugs and spices, pearls and gold,' for which everyone was looking." It was he who first gave an accurate idea of the true size of the globe, and of the western continent. France rested content with this triumph for some time, and it was ten years later before she sent out Jacques Cartier, who set up the cross of France in Newfoundland, where the people, so he said, were the poorest in the world. In 1535 he made another journey, carrying the lilies of France up the St. Lawrence, and to the mouth of the stream which he named the St. Croix. The Indians received him as some great spirit, who could heal the sick and perform miracles, but he, like the Spaniards, seemed to forget that he belonged to a Christian country, and though the Indians treated him with much civility, made a treacherous return. When he set sail for his own land he seized a friendly chief and nine of his tribe, and, amid the wailing of the amazed Indians on the shore, carried them away across the sea. It was little wonder that the Indians remembered these things against the invaders, and that when the French returned, in 1540, and set up a colony near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, they found the Indians hostile. It was in vain that the lying Frenchmen

told them that the Indians they had carried over seas with them had been made into great men in the land, and lived in palaces of marble. The Indians had learned that one would expect nothing but lies from men with white faces; and the truth was that all of those proud-spirited Indians had died of broken hearts, except one poor lonely little maiden, whose duty it was to show herself at fetes for the curious French ladies to wonder at and exclaim over. Two forts were built to protect the new colony, one at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the other at the mouth of the St. Croix.

France also started a colony far south. At the head of this was John Ribault, and with him a band of soldiers, seamen and gentlemen. This was in the midst of the great religious reformation of Europe, when the Huguenots had been driven in large numbers from France to Holland. These oppressed people decided to set up their reformed protestant church in the wilderness, and for the first time made the new world the shelter of the scorned and the outcast. So, with a sword in one hand and a cross in the other, staunch John Ribault led his band of faithful worshipers into a land where they hoped to find peace. But it was not to be. When the King of Spain became aware that the French had planted a colony upon this territory, he sent Menendez, one of his most formidable generals, to oust them. Rene Laudonniere was temporarily in charge of the fort at Port Royal, where the Huguenots were, and John Ribault was hurrying over seas with supplies and additions to the settlement. The fleets of Ribault and Menendez had some thrilling adventures at sea, in which the Spanish general was outwitted. He retired to the coast and founded the city of St. Augustine, the oldest city within the present boundary of the United States, older even than Santa Fe. Here men, women and children were settled. Amid music and the thundering of guns Menendez landed, and kneeling to kiss the cross took possession in the name of Philip II, King of Spain. A few days after this, while Ribault was still at sea, a terrible storm broke over the country, which seriously disabled his fleet. Menendez guessed that Ribault would not have had time to reach Port Royal, and saw that a safe opportunity for attack had come. Hurrying overland he fell upon the French in the fort. The surprise was complete. The French were put to the sword. One hundred and thirty-two were killed that night, and in the morning ten of the fugitives were captured and hanged. Over these Menendez hung the label, "I do not this to Frenchmen, but to heretics." Among the number who escaped were the younger Ribault and Rene Laudonniere.

Ribault did not know that Port Royal had been taken. He had been wrecked on the coast with his three hundred and fifty men. He begged Menendez to spare them, and even offered a heavy ransom, but Menendez refused. Such as laid down their arms and surrendered to Menendez were butchered. Among these was Ribault. A few went southward, preferring to try the perils of the wilderness. In a few days the fort at Port Royal, which the Spaniards had re-named San Mateo, caught fire, and burned to the ground.

Three years later, the French sent over another expedition, under the command of De Gourgues. His purpose was to be revenged upon the Spaniards. He made friends with the Indians, who were ready to join in any enterprise which would be likely to make the Spanish suffer. De Gourgues fell upon the Spaniards exactly as Menendez had on Fort Caroline, and left only fifteen of the Spanish garrison living. The soldiers upon the other side of the river were also massacred. The party went on to San Mateo, which the Spaniards still held, and killed nearly all of the soldiers there. Those that were captured were hung, and De Gourgues put on the trees, "I do not this as unto Spaniards, but as unto traitors, robbers and murderers." St Augustine was finally burned by Sir Francis Drake.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Jeffery's "French Dominions in America."
 Jones' "Antiquities of Southern Indians."
 Las Casas' "Narrative and Critical History of America" in 2 vols.
 Parkman's "Jesuits in America."
 Schoolcraft's "History and Condition of the Indian Tribes."
 FICTION—Chateaubriand's "Atala."
 POETRY—Levi Bishop's "Jesuit Missionary."

CHAPTER VI.

A Lodge in the Wilderness.

THE ENGLISH—THEIR SEARCH FOR THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE—
FROBISHER'S EXPLORATIONS—SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT'S
SETTLEMENT—THE COLONY OF SIR WALTER
RALEIGH—GOSNOLD'S FAILURE.



It was the glowing stories which the Huguenots told in the flight which some of them made from Florida to England, after the massacres, that induced the English navigators to secure that land. They tried to find the northwest passage, for which Cabot had looked, and in 1578, Sir Francis Drake sailed up the Pacific coast, plundering, in the wicked fashion of those days, Spanish settlements as he went. He went as far as Washington Territory. But no slight failure could discourage the English. The land for which they looked wore such a dazzling aspect to them that neither the loss of men or money could stop them in their search for the way to Cathay. Pictures of the wonderful country of Kublai Khan filled them with dreams. Here, so they had heard, were twelve thousand cities, all near together. The estate of the king, spreading over ten miles, was a luxurious garden, watered with clear rivers and filled with the music of fountains. There were marble palaces, summer houses indescribably beautiful and airy, wonderful armies of trained soldiers, and magnificent fortresses. From here all the finest silks, the brightest gold and the richest spices came.

And yet, for all their attempts, more than one hundred years passed from the time of the landing of the Cabots before an English colony

was planted on American soil. It was in 1527 that one of the futile attempts was made. Two fine ships set sail from London and went toward the northeast, but encountering a sea of ice there, turned back. Only one of the ships reached England.

In 1536 the determined English sought once more for the mysterious passage, but so ill provided was the expedition, that when the men reached Newfoundland they were reduced to killing each other that all might not starve. The captain, who had thought at first that the loss of his men was due to wild beasts, or to Indians, finally discovered the truth, and set forth their sin in the strongest words of which he was master. The miserable men stopped murdering each other, but it was not long before hunger drove them to cast lots for the choice of one who should die to save the rest. Fortunately for them a French ship, with plenty of food on board, arrived that night. The desperate Englishmen managed to get possession of the boat and put to sea, leaving the Frenchmen their empty vessel. However, the Frenchmen finally reached England, and were recompensed by the king for their losses.

It was in 1553 that Sir Hugh Willoughby, a most valiant gentleman, well born, renowned for singular skill in the service of war, started out with four vessels. They were well built and well provided, and one of them was considered quite a marvel of skill and strength. No expedition which left England went with more display. The whole court came to Greenwich, and the noblemen came running out to see the ships. The windows were crowded, and people looked down from the tops of towers. The shore was black with sight-seers. Sailors crowded the ships in the harbor. The American-bound vessels set sail amid salute after salute from the royal guns, but the cruel northern seas wrecked them as they have so many since. Two of them were found years later by some Russian fishermen, and in the cabin of one sat Sir Hugh Willoughby, with a pen in his frozen fingers. Scattered about both ships lay the bodies of the perished crew, every man of them frozen to death. The sailors tried to take the ships back to England, but they foundered at sea. But, though this expedition was so tragic, it was not absolutely useless, for some of the crew in one of the other ships reached Archangel, and traveled overland to Moscow, and commerce between England and Russia was opened. This was of great value to England.

England could not quiet her enthusiasm on the subject of the new world, and in 1576 Martin Frobisher set sail with his three small vessels. Queen Mary, leaning from her windows, condescended to wave her

hands to the passing ships as a farewell token of her good wishes. The first journey of Frobisher brought few results; one of them was somewhat humorous. He brought with him a few black stones, which he had picked up on the island of Cumberland. These he gave his wife as a souvenir of his journey. She put them into the fire, and when they were taken out, they proved to be gold. This filled Frobisher with impatience to return. He started with fifteen ships, all of which were to come back laden with ore, and so they did, but the ore had in it no gold. Frobisher found the strait into Hudson's Bay which bears his name, and which he supposed was a passage into the sea of Suez. Just what these ship-loads of black stones cost England, it would be difficult to guess. In time, however, even the most saving forgot about that unfortunate waste, and another northern expedition was planned in 1585, under the charge of John Davis. Davis' Strait is all that serves to keep alive this voyage. Then came the scheme of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a very distinguished gentleman, as full of ideas as he was of bravery. He sailed in 1583, with a fleet of five ships, and with a company of two hundred and sixty men, among whom were refiners of minerals and mechanics of all trades. They settled, for a time, near the mouth of the St. Johns river, in Newfoundland, and set up a pillar, with the arms of England carved upon it. Indeed, there was more display than work, with the usual unhappy results. Many of Sir Humphrey's men deserted, and some died.

At the colony at St. Johns, a conspiracy was started to seize the vessels while the admiral and captains were on shore. Gilbert, therefore, found necessary to send home as many of the sick and insubordinate as could be spared. Soon after this, those remaining resumed their voyage. One of the ships was lost, but Sir Humphrey was still in a comparatively happy frame of mind. Had he not found ore which the assayer said held silver? But the mines, or what he thought were the mines, proved to yield nothing after all. On the way to England, the *Golden Hind* foundered. Gilbert himself was on the ship. It was the smallest of the fleet, but Gilbert refused to let any of his men stand a peril that he did not share. In the midst of the terrible storm, in which the boat sank, Sir Humphrey sat quietly in the stern with a book in his hand, and called out cheerfully, when the companion boat offered help: "We are as near Heaven by sea as by land." When Sir Gilbert died, his ambitious projects were taken up by Sir Walter Raleigh, his half-brother.

No more charming figure than he ever figured in American history. He was a soldier, a sailor, a statesman, and a most polished gentleman,



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a graceful poet, a historian and a thinker. He had sent numerous ships to America at his own expense, being very eager for England's glory, but the men on them offended the Indians by their bad conduct, and were always forced to return to England. Finally, he sent out a colony which he felt sure would succeed. It had as a governor a respected Englishman by the name of John White; with him was his family, many friends, and a corps of mechanics and farmers. John White established his company on Roanoke Island, and having settled them as well as possible, left for England to obtain more supplies. Before he left, White's daughter, the wife of Ananias Dare, gave birth to a daughter—the first little English girl born on American soil. White was gone a long time—a strangely long time, considering everything. When he returned the colony had entirely disappeared. It is true that they found the word "Croatoan" carved upon one of the trees. This was the name of one of the islands not far distant, and it had been agreed upon by the colonists, at the time of the departure of their governor, that, should they see fit to leave for any reason, they would write the name of their destination where it could be found. But John White was only a passenger upon the vessel which visited the spot where the colony had been, and he was taken to the far south. Sir Walter Raleigh sent out ship after ship to search for the lost colony, but every captain found excuses for not obeying his commands, and the unfortunate people were never definitely heard from. After the gallant Sir Raleigh was imprisoned in the Tower of London, no one thought more about the matter. They were probably killed by Powhatan. Sir Raleigh has the distinction, among greater ones, of having made the use of tobacco fashionable in England, as well as having introduced potatoes to English tables. He himself never visited the North American colony which had cost him so much money and anxiety. The two trips which he made to America were to the mouth of the Orinoco river, in South America.

The next colonial failure was in charge of Bartholomew Gosnold. He, also, started for the great extent of territory which Raleigh had named Virginia after the virgin Queen Elizabeth, and which included all the region lying between Canada and Florida. Gosnold's colony was attempted on Cuttyhunk Island, but he and his company only stayed there a few months.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Buchanan's "History, Manners and Customs of North American Indians."
BIOGRAPHY—Oldys' "Life of Raleigh."
Southey's "Life of Raleigh."
FICTION—"First Settlers of Virginia."
POETRY—Longfellow's "Sir Humphrey Gilbert."

CHAPTER VII.

Founding the Old Dominion.

THE LONDON AND PLYMOUTH COMPANIES—THE VIRGINIAN SETTLEMENT—CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH AND HIS WONDERFUL ADVENTURES—POCAHONTAS—THE NEW CHARTER—THE WRECK OF THE "SEA ADVENTURE."



THE English king saw that it was necessary to take fresh measures if he ever wished to establish a successful colony in America. He therefore formed two large companies, one of which he called the London Company, and the other the Plymouth Company. The first of these was to go to the south, and the other to the north, and they were to build no dwellings nearer to each other than one hundred miles. It was evident that the king understood the quarrelsome nature of his subjects. Each of these colonies was to be governed by thirteen men, who were appointed by the king; and should any of them die, or resign their positions, they were at liberty to choose a man to fill the place themselves, provided that the man was not a clergyman. The king, it will be remembered, was James I, a man of much learning, though not of so much wisdom, for his learning was not of a sort which taught him kindness. In the summer of 1606, two ships belonging to the Plymouth Company sailed away from England. One of these ships was taken by the Spaniards, but the other one coasted off Maine and made a hasty return. The general report of the captain pleased Chief Justice Popham, who made up his mind, on the following year, to send his brother, George Popham, and Raleigh Gilbert, a son of Sir Humphrey,

to settle a colony; but they made no permanent settlement, and it remained for the London Company to make the first permanent village. In this there were one hundred and five men, and no women. Among them were mechanics, soldiers and servants, and, if the truth must be told, rather too many gentlemen. Their ships were the "Sarah Constant," the "Godspeed" and the "Discovery," and Captain Christopher Newport was their commander. They were foolish enough to go by the old route of the West Indies, stopping along by the way in the pleasant towns of the Spaniards, and wasting both food and time. There were too many proud men among them for such a thing to be advisable, for they were certain to get into quarrels. The London Council had told them not to break the seals of their letters of instruction until they had landed on the shores of Virginia, so no man knew which was greatest, and all tried to exercise authority. One of the most disagreeable among them was John Smith. This young man was always energetic and nervous. He wanted to do a great many things, and do them in his own peculiar way, and had very little patience with slower and duller persons, so he very naturally fretted at the wasteful way in which matters were being conducted, and, as a consequence, found himself suddenly arrested. It was in the lovely month of April when they sailed into the Chesapeake Bay, and giving names to Cape Henry and Cape Charles, went eagerly to work. The sealed box was opened, and the names of the council were heard. They were Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliff, John Martin and George Kendall. They spent half a month in looking for a suitable place for their colony, and fixed at length on the spot where Jamestown still stands, and which they named in honor of their king. All of the council, except Smith, who was still in disfavor, were sworn into office. Then work began seriously. Try to imagine how they cut the trees and pitched their tents, how they split the logs for boards and made gardens, planting the seeds they had brought with them, and braided nets from twine. Imagine, too, how heartily they must have talked, laughed, sung and quarreled. They had been instructed by the council to see if an opening could be found by some river or lake from Virginia to the South Sea, and Captain Newport fitted out a shallop, and went with quite a number of men up the James river, toward the Appalachian mountains. The Indians received them with kindness, and fed them with the best that they had. The best was not bad. It consisted of venison, turkey, maize, strawberries, mulberries, dried nuts and tobacco.

The returns which Newport's men gave for these dainties was principally beads and whisky. It seems as if always the invading Christian was the first to do a wrong thing. One of the remarkable characters they met upon this voyage was a strong, manlike queen, who refused to be scared at the sound of a gun, although her braves were so. Newport and his men went on till they came to a great waterfall, and then turned back, noticing, with some fear as they did so, a change in the manner of the Indians. When they got back to the camp they found that several men had been wounded and one boy killed. A fort was built for further protection, and in a short time Newport set sail for England. While he was gone, those remaining at the settlement quarreled frightfully. For one thing, they were suffering from hunger. It seemed as if they never had enough to eat. With game in the woods and fish in the rivers, why this should be so, it is difficult to guess. Disease broke out among them, occurring principally from the want of food and proper shelter. For, instead of building substantial houses of logs, they crowded into one miserable, insecure building. Each man had for his daily allowance but half a pint of boiled wheat, and another of barley, infested with worms. At last it became necessary for the president, Wingfield, to set aside such sack and vinegar as was left, to use in case of extreme sickness, and for the communion table. It was this action largely which caused the hungry and selfish men of the colony to find fault with Wingfield, and to depose him from his position as president. John Smith, Ratcliff and Martin were the men who took the principal part in this, and from that time on, John Smith seems to have been the moving spirit of the colony, although many of its best actions were suggested by Gosnold, a man very wise and pious. That any of the colony lived over that dreadful summer was owing largely to the kindness of the Indians, who brought them provisions. In the autumn, things went more peacefully, as the game became more plentiful and the harvests were gathered. Smith then went upon one of his journeys into the interior, where he came very near losing his life at the hands of some strange Indians. It is said that he tied his guide to his own body with his garters, and as his guide was an Indian, his foes would not shoot at him. At length, however, he was obliged to surrender, and was taken before the king of the tribe. Then he displayed all of that matchless ingenuity which made him so interesting to all. He showed the Indians his round compass made of ivory, and explained to them the movements of the sun, moon and stars, the shape of the earth, the comparative differences of the land and sea, and told them of all the

sorts of men about which he knew anything. But notwithstanding this entertainment, the Indians tied him to a tree and were about to shoot him with arrows, when the king, suddenly concluding that he would like to save a man who knew so many curious things, released him. They fed him so well that Smith became alarmed. He was quite sure they were fattening him before they killed him. Finally they promised him his liberty, and even offered to give him some land and women, if he would help them attack Jamestown. But he told them of the great guns which the English had, and frightened them into giving up the plan. Then he capped the climax of their wonder by writing to the fort for a quantity of presents for the Indians, who were unable to imagine how paper could speak. At last he was taken to the greatest king of all, Powhatan, who received him with much state, with a young Indian girl upon each side of him, and rows of men and women, much decorated, around about. He was treated with great ceremony and distinction, which, however, according to Smith's account, ended in rather a peculiar way. He was dragged to a great stone, upon which his head was laid, and by which stood men with clubs ready to beat out his brains, but at this very dreadful moment, Pocahontas, the king's dearest daughter, threw her arms about his head and laid her face across his, to prevent them from touching him. His life was spared. The story is so romantic that there is a reluctance to doubt it, especially when it is remembered that Pocahontas was only twelve years old at this time.

The little princess, Pocahontas, figured largely in the history of the colony. She shocked the decorous gentlemen exceedingly by turning somersaults about the fort, but conciliated them by frequently bringing them food, and by warning them of attacks from the Indians. Years afterward she was baptized and re-named Lady Rebecca, which was a much more respectable name than Pocahontas, which means "Little Wanton," and was given to her because she was noticeably wild, even among the Indian maidens. In course of time she married John Rolfe, an English gentleman, who took her to England, where she was presented to the Queen by Lord and Lady de la Ware. She sickened with small-pox just before taking the ship to return to America, and died at the age of twenty-two. No woman of those days has so extended a reputation; no other one has been so much written about. She is the subject of many novels and poems, and even the dullest historian has not been able to pass her by without some mention of her kindness of heart, her wayward impulsiveness, and her beauty. It was not strange

that John Smith wished to publish the fact that she showed some interest in him. Her father, Powhatan, has also been much written about. He was the most powerful of all the Indian chiefs of Virginia; perhaps the most wily of them as well. He is described as being very stalwart and well-shaped of limb, and with a sad countenance and thin grey hair. So proud was he that he could not be made to kneel when the council saw fit to crown him after the English manner. King James, of England, sent robes and a crown that the ceremony might be carried out in a king-like manner, but neither threats nor coaxing could make the disdainful old savage bend a knee, and it became necessary for two of the noblemen to press heavily upon his shoulders, so that his head was sufficiently bowed to suit popular prejudice.

Meanwhile, Smith was having a most melancholy time. Several times he was taken captive. Once he was condemned to death by his own colony, because two Englishmen lost their lives fighting the Indians, under his command. But upon the very day when he was to be killed, Captain Newport fortunately returned from England, where he had been for supplies, and interceded for Smith's life. Smith was also stung by a poisonous fish when he was wading the creek, and was so severely poisoned that his friends had no doubt of his near death, and hastened to dig a grave for him, but this redoubtable hero unexpectedly brought himself to, and helped eat the fish that came so near ending him. By this time, what with malaria, lack of food and exposure, the colony had been reduced in nine months to about forty persons, but Newport's ship brought one hundred and twenty men, besides a stock of provisions, farming implements, and of seeds. It seemed, however, as if good fortune was never to be theirs. Hardly had they got in better mood from Newport's help, than the fort was almost destroyed by fire. Worse still, the company became wildly excited over some hills of yellow mica, which they supposed to be gold, and this fever of happy excitement had its re-action, which left them more miserable and despondent than before. Smith spent the summer in sailing upon the waters of Virginia, along the bays and rivers, and in becoming acquainted with the different tribes of Indians. On the return from the last expedition, Smith was made president of the colony, a position which he had always desired. About the same time, Newport arrived again from England with a second supply of men and provisions, and with him the two first women of the colony, Mistress Forrest and her maid, Ann Burras. It is unnecessary to say that it was not many weeks before Ann Burras was married.

Upon this occasion, Newport had orders from the London Council to bring home a lump of gold, to discover the passage to the South Sea, and to find the survivors of the Roanoke colony. It goes without saying that he was able to do none of these things. All of his ingenuity was bent upon keeping the friendship of Powhatan, and he was aided in this, to a certain extent, by John Savage, an English lad, who, for thirteen years, lived with Powhatan, acting as an interpreter between the English and the Indians. History says little about his youth, and, indeed, his name is the only thing remembered of him, but he must have led a very wild and exciting life—indeed there must have been an uncertainty about his life which, of itself, made existence interesting. John Smith had difficulty in keeping the colony from starving. He relied chiefly upon the Indians for food, for the colonists were too lazy to protect the stores brought from England, but allowed them to decay and to become infested with the rats, which came in the ships, and which, like themselves, found a settlement on the shores of the new world. Smith's greatest trial was in trying to persuade the gentlemen about him that they were able to work, for they would neither plant, fish, nor hunt, and would shirk, like schoolboys, each task given them. It is said that two of them did go to work felling trees, and worked so hard that the president wrote that forty of them would be worth a hundred common men, but they failed to keep up their labor. At length, the entire council of the colony, with the exception of Smith, was drowned. Smith then became more necessary to the company, and more important in his own esteem than ever. The way in which he slew Indian chiefs of gigantic size, and, alone, routed great armies of savages, is more like the history of some modern Jack the Giant-Killer, than of any ordinary man. The colony was in very bad humor. Sometimes members of it mutinied, and two Dutchmen fled to the Indians, and inspired a conspiracy with Powhatan for the entire destruction of Jamestown. Smith learned of their plans, however, and brought even Powhatan into a state of humility. But for all of his bravery, the colony was steadily failing. The cost by which it had been maintained was great, and, in 1609, the king found it necessary to form a new corporation to sustain it. This was composed of the most distinguished and wealthy men of England, and a fleet of nine ships, carrying five hundred people, left England in the month of May—a month when England is most beautiful—for the tragic shores of America. Seven of these reached the settlement in August, but one of them foundered at sea, and another, the *Sea Adventure*, on board

which was the admiral, Gates, Captain Newport, William Strachey and Summers, also failed to appear. This vessel was wrecked off the Bermudas, in a storm so terrible that the description which William Strachey afterwards gave of it served to inspire Shakespere's description of the storm in the first act of "The Tempest." "Such was the tumult of the elements that the sea dashed above the clouds, and gave battle unto Heaven. It could not be said to be rain. The waters, like whole rivers, did flood into the air. Winds and seas were as mad as fury and rage could make them." They passed three days and four nights in this dreadful strait, and, on the last night of their struggle, were cheered with a strange, fantastic light, that trembled up among the shrouds and stayed there till the morning watch. When morning really came, they found the boat lodged between two rocks, in still waters. The passengers and crew of the *Sea Adventure* spent their winter on the island. The climate was delightful. There was hunting and fishing, as well as plenty of berries and wild fruits. A few persons died, others married, and there were two births. One of the little children born there, in the midst of the Atlantic ocean, was named Bermuda; the other, a boy, Bermudas. In May, a year from the time when they had left England, they started once more for the Virginian colony.

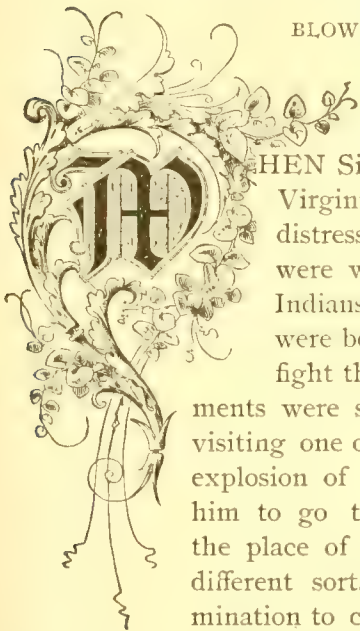
FOR FURTHER READING:

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Campbell's "Virginia."
Doyle's "English Colonies in America."
FICTION—Hopkins' "The Youth of the Old Dominion."
Moseby's "Pocahontas."
POETRY—Hillar's "Pocahontas."
Seba Smith's "Powhatan."
Mrs. Heman's "Pocahontas."
Mrs. Sigourney's "Pocahontas."
DRAMA—Owen's "Pocahontas."
Seagull's "Eastward, Ho!"
Shakespere's "Tempest"—1st act.

CHAPTER VIII.

Through Death to Victory.

FROM THE BERMUDAS TO VIRGINIA—THE STARVING TIMES—THE
ARRIVAL OF LORD DE LA WARE—HELP FROM ENGLAND—
THE BEGINNING OF SLAVERY—THE FIRST
BLOW AT INTEMPERANCE.



WHEN Sir Thomas Gates and his men arrived at the Virginian colony, they found things in a most distressing condition. Once more the people were without food, and were begging from the Indians. For one reason and another the Indians were becoming sullen, and were more inclined to fight than to give favors. Various smaller settlements were started around about, and John Smith, in visiting one of these, met with a serious accident by the explosion of gunpowder, which made it necessary for him to go to England. Percy became president in the place of Smith, but he was a character of a very different sort. It needed Smith's overbearing determination to control the men of the colony. Smith had been able to make the colonists work a little. Percy was not able to do this. What with hard drink and idleness, and all of its various consequences, the men were reduced in health and in courage. They had killed the domestic animals and eaten up all the supplies which Smith had seen to the storing of. That horrible winter is known as the starving time, a name which is remarkably appropriate, for at the time of Gates' arrival only sixty out of five hundred were alive. These were hardly alive, and a few of them came crawling out to welcome Gates when he arrived. This was in May, 1610. No scene more disorderly and desolate could be imagined. The very houses had been torn down for firewood, because the colonists had been afraid to venture into the woods. Gates thought it best not to live in a place so associated

with terror and death. There were two vessels in port, and Gates was possessed of two which his men had built on the Bermudas. They boarded these and were about riding out of the harbor when word was brought them from Lord de la Ware that he was coming to their help with men and provisions. Lord de la Ware was chief of the London Company, although up to this time he had not himself visited the colony. It had been with much care that Commander Gates saved the block-house, where the people had huddled that terrible winter, from being burned, for the colonists, like a set of crazy schoolboys, were much fonder of destroying than building up, and if they could have had their way, would have set fire to everything in Jamestown. They had reason to be very thankful that Gates' wiser advice had been followed, and that upon the command of Lord de la Ware to return, they had a place to go into. Whatever these gentlemen of the old time did, they did with ceremony. They may have been very ragged and very worthless, but they were always dignified and pretentious. The landing of Lord de la Ware was a matter for much ceremony. It began, as did all their demonstrations, with prayer. Though Lord de la Ware was so successful and brilliant a nobleman and governor, he bore always a spirit of true and sincere humility. He was, above all things, deeply reverential, and though he could be severe, he could also be gentle. It was the time now to be severe, and he determined there should be no more idleness, no more hard drinking, and much less playing of games among the wayward colonists. He began trading with the Indians for corn, built two substantial forts, and started various schemes, some of which were not successful. In a year the malaria, which had affected so many of the colonists, overpowered him, and it was necessary for him to return to England. Shortly after his leaving Virginia, Thomas Gates and another commander, Sir Thomas Dale, arrived from England with fresh expeditions. They had not only men, but what was actually more important at that time, victuals and domestic animals. Sir Thomas seems to have understood, better than any who had preceded him, the economy by which a young nation should preserve itself. To each man he gave three acres of ground, which should belong to him absolutely. He no longer allowed them to live upon the public stores. It became necessary for them to make their living, or starve. He insisted upon their building houses for themselves, and checked the disease which had spread so rapidly when they persisted upon crowding into one poorly ventilated shed. New settlements were made about this time, and though they were under the same local government, it extended the cultivation of land.

For the first time streets were laid out, and the plantations had definite boundaries. This progress was slow, but under these two determined leaders, it was sure.

Stories of the wildness and drunkenness of the men of Virginia had been carried back to England, and the dignified members of the London corporation there determined to uproot these evils by a set of laws. They must have imagined that the natures of Englishmen were very much changed by crossing the Atlantic, for it is certain that no Englishman living in their native island ever obeyed such laws as these. There was a penalty of death for wilfully pulling up a flower, a root or an herb when set to weeding. He who uttered an oath had a bodkin thrust through his tongue at the second offense, and at the third offense suffered death. If he was absent from the place of public worship, he was deprived of a week's allowance for the first offense, publicly whipped for the second, and killed for the third. No one was allowed to kill any domestic animal, not even a chicken or a dog, though it might belong to the person who killed it. A tradesman who neglected his business was sent to the galleys for four years if he persisted in the offense. It was evident that the great waste of money, time, opportunity and supplies of which the colony had been guilty had irritated the London Company into making these ridiculous regulations. Still more severe than these were the martial rules, which each private citizen was expected to know and obey.

For the first time the colony began to make some money. It came from the sale of tobacco, and, for the raising of this plant, the cultivation of corn was neglected. It was through the taxation of tobacco in England that the colony came to open its first trading with Holland, and the indirect outcome of it was the first quarrel with England. A settlement was finally made, but not for several years. From the extreme of idleness the colonists went to the extreme of industry, as soon as their love for money prompted it, and those who owned no land did not hesitate to plant tobacco in the very streets of Jamestown. England began to see that the wealth of Virginia did not lie in gold, nor its advantages in a passage to the southern seas. Tobacco charmed them, as the prospects of Cathay had bewitched them before. Men were sent over in ship-loads, and most of these men were criminals, who had been condemned to serve out a term of years. Others were paupers, who sold themselves into this voluntary slavery for a given period of time, with the understanding that at the end of that time they were to become free citizens. Worse, still, so valuable did men become, that in 1619 a

Dutch ship came to Jamestown with a cargo of negroes, from the coast of Guinea. And thus the negro was brought under the American-English government for the first time. It was the beginning of slavery in the colonies of the new world.

Perhaps it is hardly worthy of mention—of such slight importance were things of this nature—that Captain Argall, who was for a time governor of the colony, saw fit to destroy a little colony of French, at Port Royal, in the Bay of Fundy. The destruction of a few men in those days mattered but little, and even the historian would only think this worthy of mention, because it was one of the first outbreaks between the French and the English. Governor Argall set the example of greediness. He and his colony gave themselves up to a near-sighted plan of money-making, neglecting all those things which were necessary for the real comfort of their homes, and for the better mode of living. The distinguished Lord de la Ware was sent out to displace him, but he died on his way. Sir George Yeardley was made President of Virginia, which now numbered about six hundred persons. Their reduction had come from the same old mismanagement. There was a scarcity of food. To put them in better position, Yeardley gave them the power of self-government, and on July 30, 1619, met the first legislative assembly in this country. It had twenty-two representatives, a governor, and the council.

Here, the first blow was struck at intemperance. There was an enactment against drunkenness, making it a punishable offence.

Three hundred members of the colony died the next year. The king determined to replace these men. He sent one hundred felons from the jails of England. Sir Edward Sandys, one of the most thoughtful, courteous and cultivated men in Virginia, did what he could to turn this mistake into an advantage. He founded a university at Henricho, one of the smaller settlements, where both Indians and whites were accepted as pupils. About this University were ten thousand acres of land, and here, in less than two years, one hundred men were settled. Then, a fortunate thing happened. One hundred English maidens offered to come to the colony, as wives for the young men. After this there were homes. Wherever there are homes, there is order. For the first time, it began to look as if there might be a new and prosperous England on the shores of America.

Another thing that marked this year was the sending out of many poor boys and girls, from the overcrowded factories of England, to serve as apprentices in America. These boys and girls, who, in the

condition of England, might have been doomed to a life of constant drudgery, laid the foundation of some of the best and most distinguished families of this country. Within a year 1,261 persons came to this country, either through Sir Edward Sandys, who was treasurer of the company, or through private ventures. Sir Edward Sandys should be remembered by all who love books, and have enjoyed the blessing of a free-school instruction, as the founder of the first school in America, and the writer of the first book. This was a translation of Ovid, made in leisure hours, upon the banks of the James river.

FOR FURTHER READING:

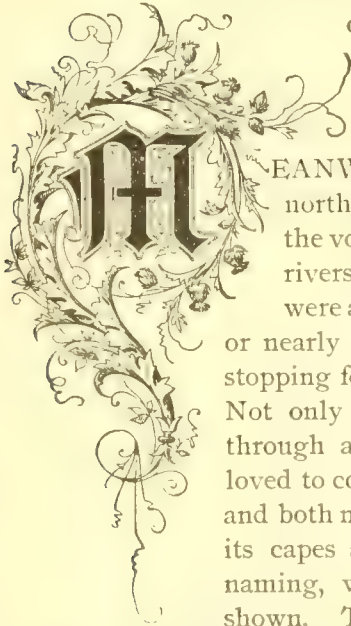
- HISTORY—Jefferson's "Notes on Virginia."
Jefferson's "Old Churches of Virginia."
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "American Biographies."
FICTION—Thackeray's "Virginians."
Cooke's "Virginia Comedians."
James' "Old Dominion."
Defoe's "Jacques."



CHAPTER IX.

Norumbega, the Beautiful.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MAINE—THE VOYAGE OF THE ENGLISH—CHAM-
PLAIN AND VERMONT—THE SETTLEMENT
OF MT. DESERT.



MEANWHILE, there were settlements far to the north. Maine was a most attractive country to the voyager. Its innumerable lakes and beautiful rivers, its magnificent coast, its hills and meadows, were all tempting. For three-fourths of a century, or nearly that, explorers had dallied about it, often stopping for a while and making insecure settlements. Not only had the English been enamored with it through all these years, but the French, as well, had loved to coast along its shores and explore its interior, and both nations had given names to its rivers and bays, its capes and islands. In nothing more than in this naming, was the different policy of the two nations shown. The English made the mistake of insisting upon the use of their own favorite names. The French used the Indian names, and seemed to bend to the customs and prejudices of the race whose country they were invading. This was a very sure way of winning and keeping friendship. The French went further. They dressed as the Indians did whenever it was possible for them to do so; they hunted after the fashion of the Indians, and fished with Indian tackle. Imitation is the sincerest flattery, and it could not fail to have its effect even upon a race of savages.

Innumerable voyages were made by both French and English to Norumbega, which was then the musical appellation of that country, but no one ventured to put a king's name upon the soil or to found a lasting colony. The first actual settlement made in Maine was led by De Monts, a governor of the province of Spain. With him came Samuel

de Champlain. Both of these men had previously been to Maine upon expeditions, but this time they came with a charter from Henry IV. De Monts was created Lieutenant-General of Acadia, as the country was called, from the fortieth to the forty-sixth degree of north latitude. De Monts was a Huguenot, one of the despised sect, but he had given such signal service to Henry IV that it was decided to trust him with this important venture; but while he was to follow his conscience in the matter of his own personal religion, it was agreed that the savages over which he had ruled were to be converted into Catholicism. The merchants of Rouen and Rochelle constituted the company which held the letters patent to the trade in furs and fish in Acadia. With De Monts came certain distinguished noblemen, Jean de Vincourt, the Baron de Pontrincourt, and Champlain. These gentlemen were anxious to find a quiet spot, to which they might bring their friends and families and live in peace, undisturbed by the politics of the Old World. It took the expedition two months to reach the eastern coast of Nova Scotia, and a month to explore the coast. They decided to settle their colony on a little island in the St. Croix river. Their history is similar to that of the colonies who settled farther south. There were the same hardships, the same carelessness and lack of forethought, and the same suffering. Champlain coasted far to the south, taking in the innumerable points of the bewildering coast, and turning up the mouth of every river which he came to. The Indians were not inclined to be amiable. Doubtless they had had too many previous experiments with invaders. So wretched did the condition of the colony become, that it became necessary, in the course of a few months, to move it to a harbor in Acadia, and here for several years it lived feebly.

It will be remembered that the Virginian colony was sustained by a company which had its headquarters in London, and that this was one of two companies which the king granted patents to. The northern company sent out, in 1605, a fleet of ships, under the care of George Weymouth. The experiences of Weymouth and his sailors were not of the usual sort. They were delightful. They landed upon the pleasantest of spots, and encountered beautiful weather. They found pearls in the shells on the beaches, and excellent clay for brickmaking, and trees whose gums smelled like frankincense. The Indians were friendly and hospitable, but the return made was that which could always be expected; Weymouth kidnaped five Indians, and carried them to England. The report which he brought to England hastened the action of the northern Virginia company in sending out that vain

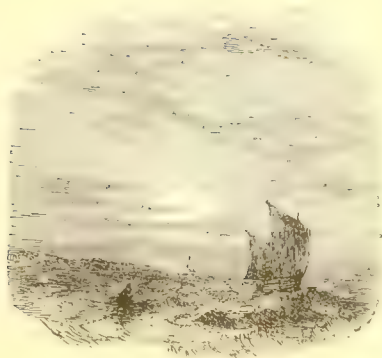
expedition of theirs, under the charge of Raleigh, Gilbert and George Popham. A few months, as has been said before, ended the existence of the settlement. Then the French made a second attempt. This was in 1608. The expedition was under the leadership of Champlain, who sailed to where Quebec now stands, and founded that ancient city. He finished a fine, if primitive, fort there, saw that garden plots were laid out and planted, and then left the colony to its own industries, looking in on it from time to time in the midst of his many voyages.

No more adventurous spirit than he ever lived. His story reads like a romance, and one of his adventures is too interesting to pass. He started up the great river St. Lawrence, with a few companions, giving names as he went to the tributaries. So appropriate were these names that they cling to this day. At the mouth of the Richelieu river he met, by appointment, a party of natives. These were on the war-path against the Iroquois. He went with these Indians, sending back all but two of his men. The light canoes were carried from water to water, and at last they reached the magnificent lake of Champlain, the only thing which this great voyager ever gave his name to. After several days they met their foes. All night they camped upon the banks of the river, taunting each other with wild cries, and in the morning the savages confronted each other. The two parties approached until they were within a few hundred feet of each other, then Champlain's party of Indians opened, and let the astonished Iroquois behold the spectacle of three white men. The well-aimed guns of the French wounded three Iroquois, and the entire party took to flight. After this battle, Champlain returned to Quebec, and lived there in some primitive state as governor. With one interruption, when the French yielded their possessions to England, he was governor until 1635. The little struggling colony in Maine, which had been planted by De Monts, had but a sorry time. As might have been expected, De Monts' authority was finally taken from him, because of the prejudice existing against Huguenots. However, he managed to get over in 1606, just in time to keep the discouraged colonists from starting for France. About this time Pontreincourt returned from France, with orders to make the new settlement a central station for the conversion of the Indians, and brought with him a number of Jesuit missionaries. These, and the missionaries that succeeded them, have been very prominent in religious work of this continent. The patroness of these voyages was Madame la Marquise de Guercheville, who was a very devoted member of the Catholic Church, and who later held the grant, not only of Acadia, but the entire territory

covered by the United States. In 1630, she sent other ships, with two more Jesuits. These settled upon Mt. Desert, one of the loveliest places, every one will admit, on this continent, with mountains which reach down to the sea and lakes beyond the mountains, with valleys and grand meadows. Flowers of all sorts grew here, and berries, all up the green mountain sides, which reached two thousand feet above the sea. The Indians were friendly, and turned willing ears to the preaching of the priests. The settlement was comfortably established, when Argall came up from the Virginian colony. Without any warning, he opened a cruel warfare upon the peaceful people, stole the commission of their leader, and, under the pretense that they had settled without royal consent, arrested them. Many of them he took to Jamestown. Others were left to find their way in an open boat to Port Royal.

FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Williamson's "Maine"
 Lodge's "English Colonies in America."
 Voyages of Samuel de Champlain."
 Thompson's "Vermont."
 FICTION—D. P. Thompson's "Grant Gurley."
 POETRY—Whittier's "Norumbega"
 Whittier's "Bride of Pennacook."
 Whittier's "Mogg Megone."



CHAPTER X.

Conquest of the Wilderness.

NOVA SCOTIA AND THE ENGLISH DESPOLIATION—THE SETTLEMENT
OF NEW HAMPSHIRE—THE MODE OF NORTHERN
COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.



INSTEAD of disapproving of this cruel action, the Governor of Jamestown sent him back to the pleasant hamlet of Acadia, where the French had a settlement, so thoroughly national in all of its characteristics that it seemed like a little piece of France set down upon the shores of the new world. None of the other colonists, then or later, accepted all of the trials which they experienced in an uncultivated country, with more bravery and jocular spirit. They were fond of dancing and all sorts of merriments. They built their houses neatly, sustained their church, revered their priest, and from the first encouraged home industries. They had herds of fine cattle and sheep, and well cared for fields. All of these possessions Argall destroyed. He burned the fort, drove away the cattle, and putting all the Acadians upon ships, with such of their worldly goods as he did not care to confiscate, sent them away from the home which they had, with the Frenchman's effusiveness, already learned to regard with so much affection. Long years after, when some of the Acadians were very old, they came sadly back to die near the spot which they had learned to love so warmly.

In 1614 Captain John Smith, who could not by any series of misfortunes be kept in England, came over to see what might be going on along the coast of Maine. He and his men were looking for gold, but as fishing seemed at that time to be as paying a business as gold mines, and

as fishing was a bird in the hand, while mining was still in the bush, he concluded to lade his ships with a cargo of the best fish to be found along the coast. He carried home, in addition to this, twenty-seven savages, seized by his shipmaster, who were taken to Spain and disposed of there at a profit. But these were rescued by some Spanish friars, and finally returned to their native home. After laying the matter of cod fishing before the English king and lords, he made another attempt to reach America in 1615, but was driven back to port by storms, and history tells little or nothing more of him.

About this time Ferdinando Gorges, who was president of the Plymouth Company in England, determined to send out a settlement at his own expense, since none of the companies seemed to second him in his aspiration to establish a successful fishery. The man whom he chose to carry out his plan was Richard Vines. So many selfish and contemptible characters figured in the early history of America, that it is a relief to think of one man who was thoroughly good and noble in all that he did. Richard Vines was associated with no great discovery or conquest. He did not bring his nation any great wealth, but his life was one which everyone is glad to think of. He reached Sago Bay in 1617, and found that a terrible plague had broken out, which was rapidly thinning the Indian tribes. Vines could easily have left and gone back to England, or to some other port, but he stayed among the plague-stricken Indians as a physician, and attended them constantly through all of their trials. Neither he nor his men were ever ill, although they laid in cabins where the Indians were dying with the disease. His work of exploration through this tedious winter was very careful. He made the coast more thoroughly known to the English, and ventured far into the interior. It is said that he was the first to describe the White Mountains, if not the first to venture among them. Another thing that distinguished him from other Englishmen, was the fact that he always opposed the giving of rum to the Indians.

Gorges sent out other expeditions, which, for various reasons, had no satisfactory results, though one of his mariners discovered Long Island Sound. The Northern Company of Plymouth had much difficulty about its charter at this time, not being satisfied with the relations which they bore to the Virginian colony. The French here put in a claim that the London Company was encroaching on the south. The Dutch had begun to creep in the slip which was left between the boundaries designated by the London and Plymouth grants. Just how all of this was finally divided up, it would be wearisome to

write, and wearisome to read, and, since none of the grants were very enduring, it is perhaps best to pass over the geographical division.

But one of these, the Laconia grant, given in 1623, should be especially mentioned, because from it came the settlement of New Hampshire. This was owned by Gorges and John Mason, and these two men sent over a ship-load of settlers, some of whom were fishermen, and others farmers, with a supply of food and tools. A part of this company settled at Strawberry Bank, which they named because of the beautiful wild strawberries growing rank over the fields. What was Strawberry Bank, is now Portsmouth, New Hampshire. The other party went up the river a few miles and settled the plantation of Dover, which was very near the place where the present city of Dover stands.

About this time, the English trade on the American coast had so increased, that in one year fifty ships came into English ports, with cargoes of various sorts, from America.

The settlement of the Maine coast went on slowly. Many expeditions were sent out, which promised, in the beginning, to be successful, but the Englishmen seem to have been afflicted with home-sickness, and were forever leaving their cabins on that stern coast and going back to their milder country. A certain merry captain, by the name of Levitt, started a plantation at the place he called York, which stands near the present city of York, and many other men built similar plantations, and fishers scattered huts along the beach, which protected them upon their fishing expeditions. At this time, all of the Plymouth company was under charge of the Governor, Robert Gorges, the son of Ferdinando. He visited America, but did not like the country, and only remained a few months. It was not until 1625 that the company from Bristol, under the patronage of Robert Aldworth and Giles Eldridge, came to Monhegan Island, which these two wealthy merchants had purchased. They also bought the Point of Pemaquid, and established there a vigorous colony. A little later, the towns of Biddeford and Saco were founded by Richard Vines and John Oldham. In 1631 Mason and Gorges divided their grant, drawing the boundary between Maine and New Hampshire, Mason taking New Hampshire, and Gorges such portion of Maine as belonged to him. Gorges offered to bring planters to his dominion, promising to give them land at a very low rate, and, if they would consent to form a city or town, to give them such laws and liberties as they had enjoyed in England. His system of law-giving had in it a touch of feudalism, although this arose from its simplicity, and not from any desire of Gorges to play the tyrant. He did more than any other one

man in the Northern Company towards settling America, but his reputation had suffered, because he was thought to have prejudices against the Puritans, who by this time were clinging like barnacles to the stern rocks of Plymouth.

More interesting to the present American than the details and dates, is the life of those early settlers. One likes to think about them living among these magnificent Maine woods, which already began to furnish the ships of the rich countries of the Old World with spars and masts. The colonists were poor, it is true, but their wants were few. People of all stations made their morning and evening meal of boiled corn and milk, or pork and beans, or pork and peas. They drank home-made beer and cider. Tea and coffee were not yet brought to this country. Their bread was usually of rye and Indian meal. They were not gay people like the French. They lived sternly, with rigid laws, and had a very high standard of morality. If vice was not punished with death, it was followed with such disgrace that the culprit had no longer any desire to live among his old friends. The laws here, however, were much milder than those of the other New England colonies, and people persecuted by the Puritans found that they could take refuge in Maine. On the other hand, there were disadvantages in being so close to Canada, for the French and Indians continually threatened the English colonies, and many Englishmen were carried captive up through that gap called Crawford's Notch, where the Sago river winds in creek-like narrowness, and which Richard Vines was the first white man to pass through. The traditions of Crawford's Notch are many and pathetic.

The Indians had good cause to be bitter. There were acts of such wanton cruelty and contempt on the part of the settlers that the Indians would have been less than human had they not retaliated. At one time Massachusetts, fearing for the remote New Hampshire settlements, sent one hundred and thirty men to Dover to join the force of Major Waldron, who commanded there. He desired to punish the Indians for some massacres of which they had been guilty, and gave orders to his men to seize all of the Indians who had been guilty of murder. He invited the Indians, who were disposed for peace, to come to him under flag of truce. This was in 1671. He then drew his men up in line of battle, and asked the Indians to take part in a mock training. Anything of this sort suited their nature well, and they went at the sport with enthusiasm. At the command to fire, their muskets were emptied into the air, and then the troops closed around them, and took them all prisoners at the point of the bayonet. It had been

Major Waldron's intention to retain only those interested in the massacre referred to—which was not extensive, though very heart-rending in its details—but little care was taken to look into the personal character of the Indians, and two hundred were sent to Boston and sold as slaves. It is no wonder that such treachery was punished. Murders among the outlying farms became frequent, and in 1689 Major Waldron's mock training bore its fruit. He had sown the wind and reaped the whirlwind.

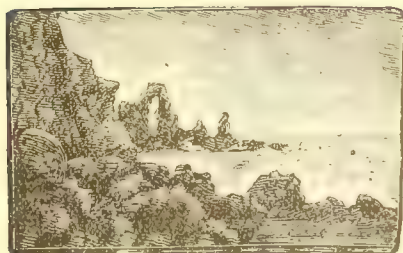
At Dover, there were five garrison houses, secure and well built. With such protection Waldron thought the people safe, and allayed the suspicion of some, who noticed the unusual actions among the Indians, by telling them to go back to their pumpkin planting; that he could attend to the Indians. One fair June day, at every garrison house two squaws asked that they might be allowed to spend the night. The people let them in. At midnight the squaws arose, unbolted the gates and admitted the Indians. Old Major Waldron, now eighty years of age, was sleeping securely in his bed when the savages entered, fierce with a pent-up indignation of thirteen years. His determination and strength had not deserted him for all of his old age, and he drove the Indians from room to room by the soldierly method in which he handled his sword. But their number was too great for him. They seated themselves at the table, on which they had placed Major Waldron in a chair. The women of the house they forced to serve them. After they had eaten, each of the Indians slit some part from the body of the Major. His nose, ears and right hand were cut off, and when, at last, he failed from loss of blood, they held a sword so that he might fall upon it. Everything of value was taken from the house, and it was set on fire. Throughout the settlement there was a general conflict. Twenty-three persons were killed, and twenty-nine were taken to Canada and sold to the French. But it was the stealing of women and children from the farm-houses, the terrible captivity, the long marches, the strange and savage life, not unfrequently accompanied by torture, which held the people in the northern settlements in the greatest fear. The details of the various fights with the Indians are too sad to tell. There was no time entirely free from hostility, and, in 1690, when the Governor of Canada organized expeditions of French and Indians against the colonists in New England and New York, and the northern settlements, of course, suffered intensely. Traditions of great heroism have come down from those times. The endurance of the people was wonderful, and it is difficult for us to believe how much they could undergo and live.

The settlements of Maine, Vermont and New Hampshire have now been touched upon. Their colonies grew very slowly. At one time New Hampshire was connected with Massachusetts in government, and at another time with New York, but finally, in 1741, it became a separate province, with a royal governor, who lived in great elegance at Portsmouth. Englishmen of great wealth and learning settled here, building substantial houses and furnishing them with massive and costly goods. The northern townships constantly filled with immigrants from Scotland and Ireland, and, by the time of the American Revolution, New Hampshire was a very sturdy and independent colony.

It was one hundred years from the time that Champlain first entered Vermont that the European settlers built there, and, until the time of the Revolution, it was not known as a separate colony, but was called **New Hampshire grants.**

FOR FURTHER READING:

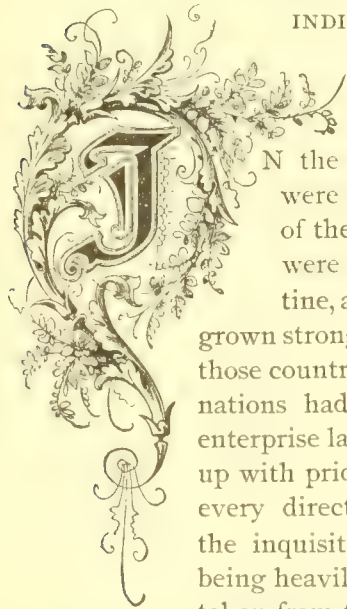
HISTORY—Parkman's "The Old Regime in Canada."
Beamish's "History of Nova Scotia."
Belknap's "New Hampshire."



CHAPTER XI.

The Dutchmen of New Netherland.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK—THE DUTCH; THEIR EXPLORATIONS
AND SETTLEMENTS—THEIR DEALINGS WITH THE
INDIANS—THEIR SUCCESS.



IN the beginning of the seventeenth century there were three European colonies established—none of them very strong. This was when the French were still in Acadia, the Spanish at St. Augustine, and the English on the James river. Spain had grown strong in Mexico and Peru, and in the conquest of those countries had gained enormous riches, but the other nations had received little return for the money and enterprise lavished upon the New World. Spain, puffed up with pride, here lost, by following a selfish policy in every direction. The Indians were being persecuted, the inquisition was in force and the Netherlands were being heavily oppressed. Great sums of money had been taken from the Netherlands, and a revenue drawn from them out of all proportion to their possessions. They were intelligent and liberal people, but were not allowed to have institutions of the sort that they demanded, and were treated more like slaves than a nation of great merchants and farmers. A most brutal governor was placed over them, and out of his cruelty grew the long series of wars, which finally ended in a struggle for independence. At the close of it, the Netherlands became one of the most vigorous nations of Europe, and a refuge for all who were oppressed in other countries. Everyone knows how they seemed to snatch their lands from the very arms of the ocean. Their farms flourished with wonderful luxuriance. Their cities became leading commercial cities of the world, and their dykes barred the ocean from their possessions, only admitting it when it could aid them. The East India trade, which for so many years was one of the chief

sources of income to Europe, was almost monopolized by them, and they had the sole right to send trading vessels around the Cape of Good Hope and through the Straits of Magellan. They also established a company for the purpose of trading at the West Indies, though for some time this was not successful. As their interests were so associated with those of the East Indies, they, as well as other nations, had looked for that never-to-be-found northwest passage. The voyages which they sent out were many, but all of them failed. At last their little country, which gave out such wonders of wealth, seemed to be cultivated almost to its last acre, and they began to turn their eyes toward the New World.

They had watched the English voyages with much interest, and had heard of the skill of a certain navigator, Henry Hudson, who had been employed in one of these expeditions. For this man they sent, and signed a contract with him which was to give him a certain sum of gold for his family during his absence, and to give his widow a sum of money in the event of his death, if he would search to the best of his ability for the pathway to India. On Saturday, the 4th of April, 1609, Hudson sailed from Amsterdam, on the *Half Moon*. His crew was composed of English and Dutch sailors—rather an unfortunate combination. The *Half Moon* went up the Norway coast toward North Cape, and toward Nova Zembla; but so crowded was the sea with jangling bergs and floating cakes of ice, and so impatient was his crew, that he was obliged to turn back. Acting upon their advice, he concluded to sail westward, and, reaching the American coast, to search for the possibility of an opening, by way of a river, to the desired Indian sea. He anchored in Penobscot Bay on July 18th, and remained there several days, while his crew repaired the vessel. They treated the Indians in a murderous way, and found it necessary to leave the bay in haste. He went close to the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, but did not visit his friends at Jamestown, perhaps because he did not wish to be seen in the service of another country. He turned northward again, and coasted until the 2d of September, when he reached a most beautiful bay, and saw the hills of Neversink to the northward. The men were delighted with the wonderful harbor that lay before them, and passed beyond Sandy Hook, up into the Narrows. The small boats were put out to explore and fish, and on the 4th of August the first European stepped upon Coney Island. Finally the strait beyond the Narrows was explored, and grassy shores, pleasant flowers and goodly trees were all examined. They had a disastrous encounter with the Indians, who killed one of the sailors and wounded two others, and

then Hudson decided to push his boat up the great river which opened before him. It was in the midst of August, and oppressively hot, though clear.

It can easily be imagined that the hills of Staten Island and all those wonderful woods of Long Island were at their best. The boat went up with the tide, anchoring at night. The Indians were much delighted with the novel sight, and crowded out to the ship, bringing corn and tobacco with them. Nearly two centuries of civilization have not been able to spoil the Hudson, but one can guess that it must have been even more majestic then than now. So silent was it, so wild and rugged, that the sailors were awe-stricken as their boat turned slowly up the stream, and floated by the wooded hills and the Palisades to the Highlands. At length the stream got too narrow for the *Half Moon* to go farther, and Hudson was obliged to content himself by sending portions of his crew, in small boats, as far as the present site of Albany. With much regret, he was forced to believe that this was only a river running north, through which he could hope to find no opening to India. It was then that Hudson gave to certain Indian chiefs, with whom he had had pleasant trading, the banquet which lived in Indian tradition one hundred years, and which even the Dutch settlers along the banks of the Hudson have been glad to relate of Hendrick Hudson and his merry crew. The Indians saw him depart with much regret, for he had furnished them with a very novel excitement; but it seemed as if Europeans were never to visit this country without being guilty of some act of great injustice to the natives. Hudson's men did not leave the beautiful "River by the Mountains," as they called it, without brutally killing a couple of Indians. The affair led to a general fight. Hudson started for Holland, but stopped at Dartmouth harbor, in England, and was held there by the English government, which saw that it had made a mistake in letting a man of such ability pass into the employ of a foreign nation. He was retained in the service of the Moscovy Company, for which he had previously sailed, and in 1610, made that last fatal voyage to the northwest, when he discovered the bay which bears his name. There among that white and desolate waste his men mutinied, tied him hand and foot and threw him on board a boat, with his son and a few companions. No one ever heard of him afterwards, but the little children living up among the highlands on the Hudson river still say, when the thunder rolls, "There are Hendrick Hudson and his crew playing nine-pins among the hills."

Holland did not seem to be especially interested in Hudson's



LAST VOYAGE OF HENRY HILSON.

THE LAST VOYAGE OF HENRY HILSON.

discoveries. It was not anxious, like Spain and England, for great territorial possessions. Since it could not have the northwest passage, it cared little about America and her virgin soil. But, though the government was indifferent to the matter, certain private merchants thought they saw a way to make much money, by exchanging trifles for costly furs. The experiment worked well, and, in a short time, a very brisk trade had sprung up between the Indians and the Dutch; the funny little vessels of the Hollanders going along the coast and up the streams, visiting the Indian hamlets and giving a few beads, or some other such trumpery, in exchange for beautiful skins. A sort of fort and store-house was built on Manhattan Island, as a station for their wares. The Netherland merchants soon saw that they had struck a good thing, and began to push their territory north and south. Incidentally, they added some fresh discoveries to the few which their country had made. Among the captains distinguished in these discoveries were Hendrick Christaensen, Adriaen Block and Cornelis Jacobsen May. Adriaen Block was the first European to pass through Hurlgate. This was in 1614. He, too, discovered and named the rocky little island which raises its head fifteen miles out of the New York harbor, and which bears his name to this day. He spent the winter of 1613-14 on Manhattan Island, having lost his ship, the *Tiger*, by fire, and finding it necessary to build another. This he named the *Onrust*, meaning the restless. It was he who first traversed Long Island Sound and sailed up the Connecticut river. He went along the New England coast as far as Nahant, and called that the limit of New Netherland. He entered the blue Narragansett Bay, and saw there the red island, or Roode Island, as he called it, from which our State of Rhode Island takes its name. Cape May was named after Captain May. Hendrick Christaensen built the first great trading post up the Hudson river, on Castle Island, close by Albany. He was an excellent agent, of adventurous spirit, and was rapidly acquiring power and wealth, when he was killed by an Indian whom he had taken on a voyage to Holland, but had safely restored to his home. His position as Governor was taken by Jacob Eelkens. Out of the many Dutch navigators, these three men are especially remembered for their faithful services to Holland.

The merchants who had first opened trade about Manhattan and the Hudson became alarmed at the number who had followed their example, and succeeded in getting an ordinance to protect themselves. In this charter the name of New Netherland was officially given to that strip

of land which lay between the 40th and 45th degrees, and which had the London Company upon one side and the Plymouth Company on the other. This was four years from the time that Hendrick Hudson's men pushed the *Half Moon* into the Narrows. The merchants desired that this be given them for a term of three years, for they saw nothing in the venture except chances for successful trade. They were satisfied with their own, which, indeed, was the most advanced of the age, and, having no desire to settle on their new possessions, merely wished to get what wealth they could out of it. Their trading grounds extended widely, and their relations with the Indians were friendly. The shores of Delaware Bay and river were explored, and the trade for seal skins opened with the natives. They went as far south as the cape they named Henlopen, and wished to have a charter for the ground to this limit, but the Republic of Holland was afraid that it might be an encroachment upon the bounds of Virginia, and refused. The trading post on Castle Island was moved to a safer spot, where the spring freshets could not disturb it, and put in a more secure building. In 1618, the charter for which the Holland merchants had asked expired, but they continued to trade with much the same freedom as before, and with so overbearing a policy that few ventured to trespass upon the ground which they claimed. So, in 1621, the West India Company, which had never really done anything previous to this, secured a charter which gave it great power. Among other things, its authority over the Dutch territory in America was absolute. It had a right to appoint all of the governing officers, and to rule with what laws it chose. It was to build forts, and to insure the protection of its own possessions. It had a board of nineteen delegates in the brave little country at home, and these ruled the great stretch of land by the Hudson. Thirty-two vessels-of-war and eighteen armed yachts were at the service of the company, in case it needed protection.

The first ship which went over with settlers was in 1623. On her was a large company of Walloons. These Walloons were not Dutchmen, but Frenchmen, who had been driven from their home on account of their religion, to find a settlement in free Holland, for in France they had been treated in a most cruel and relentless manner. They were a class quite by themselves, and had kept, for many generations, their old French words and customs, so that they neither belonged to France of that day nor to any other country. They were quite distinguished for their mechanical cleverness, and for their saving industry. It is easy to see how such people should have an ambition to

enter a country which they could call their own, and the West India directors, hearing of this aspiration, made them offers which they accepted. They sailed under Captain Cornelis Jacobsen May, and settled on the site of Albany. In a short time they had a group of comfortable bark houses, a goodly field of corn, and a pier, at which the round-prowed vessels of the Dutch could anchor. A part of the Walloons, and of the New Netherland passengers also, settled at Fort Orange. Some went to the north of the Connecticut river, and others to the western end of Long Island. A fort was built on the South river, and a trading establishment on Manhattan Island. So the Dutch now traded peaceably along the coast of the New Netherlands, and, being thrifty people, who were willing to treat the Indians with fairness, and with a love for buying and selling, they soon became quite prosperous. The Dutch settlements had three different governors during this period of its existence, the last of whom, Peter Minuet, succeeded, after a series of successes and mistakes, in making Manhattan the central point of interest. The first pictures of this are very curious. They show groups of new buildings of wood and bark, and Fort Amsterdam, with its quadrangular stone walls, and a great, awkward Dutch wind-mill, which the ships in the harbor dwarfed to insignificant size. Under Peter Minuet, the colonists tried to come to an understanding with the Plymouth Company, but, though many courtesies were exchanged on both sides, the English frankly said that they considered the Dutch intruders.

A great need was felt for some more substantial scheme of government. It was evident that the Dutch were not sufficiently interested in the country to which they had come, and that it was a mistake to take all of the products to Holland and bring so few in return.

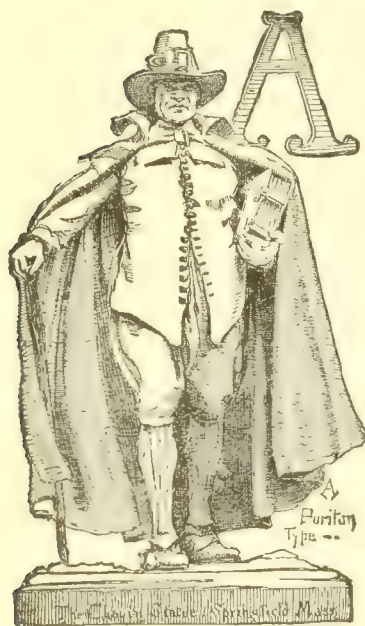
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Dunlap's "History of New Netherlands"
Barnes' "Early History of Albany."
Clute's "Annals of Staten Island."
FICTION—Irving's "Knickerbocker History."
Irving's "Legend of Sleepy Hollow."
Mrs. H. F. Parker's "Constance Aylmer."

CHAPTER XII.

The Mayflower.

THE PURITANS—THEIR TRIALS AND WANDERINGS—THE LANDING AT
PLYMOUTH ROCK—THE FIRST WINTER.



NOVELIST feels at liberty to go from one place to another, that he may keep the reader advised as to what all his characters are doing, in different places, and under different circumstances. History, like fiction, forces the writer to constantly go back, and reach his Rome by another road. The Dutch had become well acquainted with what we call New York before the greatest of all the colonies was settled, that of Plymouth. No other colony has such a fascination for the American reader. No other seemed to hold in it, to such an extent, the elements which went to make up the best in our republic. These people, as well as the settlers of Manhattan, came from Holland, though they were Englishmen. For

years the Puritans had been persecuted in England. The cause for their persecution was, that they objected to the ritual of the Church of England, and desired to have a simple gospel, with unpretentious teachings. They did not believe in what they called the Anti-Christian greatness and tyrannical power of the established church. This frame of mind was an offshoot of the Reformation. James I had no patience with these Puritans. He boasted of having peppered them soundly, and was well pleased with any one of his magistrates, or sheriffs, who persecuted them. They were scattered throughout England, and existed in large numbers in Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and Nottinghamshire. They were inspired by certain simple orators, who had a remarkable gift of eloquence. Almost all of the Puritans were yeomen, simple, sturdy

folk, direct of speech, and strong of muscle. They were acquainted with no luxuries, although they seemed to have had enough money to enable them to emigrate to another country, when they found that they could no longer live, in liberty, in their own. They were not without education, and one of their chief ambitions was to send their sons to the universities. Being educated, they were all the more determined to protect their rights, and to insist upon being allowed to worship after their own manner; therefore, when they were hunted and imprisoned, their houses beset with spies, and their means of livelihood taken from them, they decided to leave England. In this, Brewster, their leader, a man of much experience, who had been a successful courtier and an office-holder under the government, sustained them. But though the English did not wish them within their neighborhood, neither did they seem to wish them to leave. It may have been, merely, that they never allowed them to do anything they wanted to do. On several occasions, when the Puritans had secured means of reaching Holland, where they understood every one was allowed to follow his own faith, they were detained by mobs of people and brought back, to suffer the jeers and cruelties of the hard-hearted people about them. Imprisonment was the general punishment for any such attempt to escape. At length they engaged a Dutch ship to take them on board, at a quiet place between Hull and Grimsby. They gathered from various directions, with all of their goods which they could carry, and were waiting there when a mob of country people, armed with all sorts of rude weapons, rushed upon them. A boat load of Puritan men had been taken to the ship, and these had to witness the cruelty with which their wives and children and the small force of men left on shore were treated. The ship-master of the Dutch ship, frightened at what he saw, set sail, and carried the despairing men out to sea. The greater part of the unfortunate Puritans who were left on shore were arrested. After this their experiences were most pitiful. No magistrate seemed willing to decide upon their case, and they were driven from one place to another, until their money was exhausted, and all of their goods lost. Finally, some people of note and money were moved by their pathetic condition, and secured means by which they reached Holland, where they were united with their friends. In the midst of opulent Holland they succeeded, in spite of their simple ways and meagre experiences, in earning a living, and were always treated with kindness and consideration by the Dutch. But as time passed on, they felt it a pity that their English children should grow up in the midst of Dutch

surroundings, learning a foreign language and strange, un-English ways. It is not strange that the reports of America delighted them. They believed it to be a land where they would have fewer difficulties to struggle with, and where they might find an Eldorado where gold was plenty and ease ensured. They corresponded, therefore, with some of the leading men of Jamestown, especially with Sir Edward Sandys, who had been a friend of Brewster years before.

He probably advised them to obtain a patent, for they sent two of their most trusty men, Robert Cushman and John Carver, to England to see if the king would grant them one. After many delays and much evasion on the part of the king, they got one, although it was never used. It was a grant of land somewhere near the mouth of the Hudson river, and the Puritans, who were under obligations to the Dutch, probably did not feel as if they cared to infringe upon their trading ground. Holland offered them its protection, but this also was refused, being unwilling to vex their native countrymen, the English. It will be seen that they were very wary and discreet people, anxious to be at peace with everyone.

In the month of July, 1620, at the Puritan Church in Leyden, Holland, the good pastor, Robinson, held a day of prayer, singing many psalms and feasting. The last night they spent with their friends in a long, long talk, and in the morning departed very sorrowfully, with many tears, from the spot which had been their dwelling-place for twelve years. The two ships, the *Speedwell* and *Mayflower*, carried one hundred and twenty people from Southampton, on August 5th, but the *Speedwell* proved unseaworthy, and the *Mayflower* finally went alone, carrying one hundred and two persons for the new colony, besides the crew. The ship was not strong, and half way across the ocean they were on the point of returning, but prayerfully decided to go on, and, on the 9th of November, saw Cape Cod. They cast anchor in the harbor, where they could be free from the winds, and a few of them went on shore, where they fell upon their knees and thanked God for the perils which they had escaped, and for the new life which was opening before them. More than a month was spent in looking for a spot where they might settle. During this time they made a compact of government, in which it was agreed that they should bind themselves into a civil body politic for their ordering and preservation, and should feel at liberty to enact laws from time to time for the good of the colony. All of the profits in trading, fishing, planting or anything else, were to go, for a period of seven years, into common stock, and at the end of

that time were to be equally divided among all who had contributed money to the enterprise, and those who had engaged in it personally. Every person over sixteen years of age was rated as owning a single share, or ten pounds, and if he provided his own outfit to the amount of ten pounds, he was entitled to two shares. This was according to the advice of Thomas Weston, who had helped to supply ships and money for the enterprise. The captain of the *Mayflower* was impatient to land his passengers and return to England, and, therefore, they landed at last upon this "stern and rock-bound coast." Many journeys were made to the mainland, and one place was found where there were corn-fields, and little brooks of running water. Here it was decided to build the colony, and on the 15th of December, the *Mayflower* left her harbor at Cape Cod, and dropped her anchor half way between Plymouth and Clark's Island. Ten days later a shallop left the ship with the distinct purpose of landing the pilgrims upon the spot of their future home. Men, women and children went to look it over and say what they thought about it. The first shallop was filled with sailors, for the most part, but there were a few women aboard, and in the prow sat John Alden, the young scholar, and Mary Chilton, a gay young girl, who was the first to spring upon the rock. It was not until the 21st of March that all of the company went on shore. Shelter was still insufficient, and provisions were poor and scanty. Disease began to spread among them, and when spring came, almost one-half of the little company was dead. Miles Standish, the stalwart captain, was a widower, and half a dozen of the most reliable men of the company were in the same unfortunate state. John Carver, the Governor, died in April. Mary Chilton, the light-hearted girl, was left an orphan. There was great fear from the Indians, although they did not disturb them. One can see, in imagination, their poor little houses, built of logs, cemented with mortar, the low, thatched roofs, and the oil-paper which served as window glass. Side by side in the rooms stood the beds, as many as could be crowded into an apartment. There was a great shed for the public goods, and a melancholy little hospital for the sick. On the top of the church stood the four brass cannons, pointing toward the several directions.

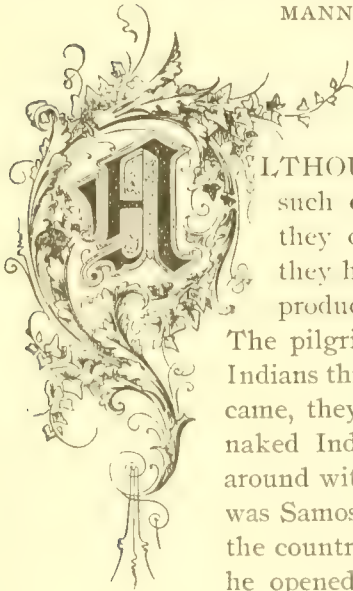
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Palfrey's and Elliott's "New England,"
 Barry's "Massachusetts,"
 Young's "Chronicles of Massachusetts."
FICTION—L. M. Child's "Hobomoe"
 H. V. Cheney's "A Peep at the Pilgrims."
 J. L. Motley's "Merry Mount."
POETRY—Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish"
 Mrs. Heman's "Landing of the Pilgrims."
 Rev. John Pierpont's "The Pilgrim Fathers."

CHAPTER XIII.

The Daily Round.

THE NEXT THREE YEARS—THE ORDER, CIVIL, MARTIAL AND RELIGIOUS, WHICH THEY MAINTAINED—THE MANNER OF THEIR DAILY LIVING, ETC.



ALTHOUGH we now see fit to hold the Indians in such contempt, the early settlers realized that they owed much to them. Such knowledge as they had of planting corn and other indigenous productions, they had to thank the Indians for.

The pilgrims at Plymouth had seen but little of the Indians through their tedious winter, but when March came, they were surprised one day by the sight of a naked Indian walking into their camp and looking around with unfeigned curiosity. This man's name was Samoset, and he gave them much knowledge of the country and of the Indians near them. Indeed, he opened friendly relation between them and the Indians round about, for he was able to speak the

English tongue, having had dealings with certain explorers, whose settlements had been unsuccessful. Samoset introduced them to Massasoit, the Sagamore of that region. These northern Indians seem to have lacked that dignity of carriage and grace of manner, which made the Indians of the islands in the West Indies so attractive. Samoset had an Indian friend who visited the colony much, and taught the colonists many things, for which they owed him a great debt of gratitude, and he, later, acted as guide for the ambassadors from the colony, when they made their treaty of peace with the surrounding Indians. The health of the people improved as the soft New England spring opened, and they gained courage from the very influence of the budding vegetation about them, and from the sea, which was always in sight. The ground was carefully cultivated, and fishing became a fine art, so that at last it

became possible for them to make journeys into the country, and become acquainted with the region about them. They explored the cape, and went as far as Boston harbor, and were filled, it is said, with regret that they did not settle upon this pleasanter spot, which was so sheltered and secure, compared to the bold and barren place which they had selected in the dreary January weather. The summer passed, and in November, a ship came from England. It was the first news that they had heard from home, and the eagerness with which they read their letters, and received their share of the supplies, can better be imagined than described. The *Fortune* brought, also, a new patent, issued to John Pierce and associates by the Plymouth Company, and for the first time establishing the Puritans legally.

The London adventurers had the hardihood to send a letter filled with reproaches that the *Mayflower* had been sent to England without a cargo from America. They seemed to have no thought of the difficulties which the colonists had had in merely preserving life and beginning their settlement. What they expected as a cargo they did not say. There could have been very little to send them at that time. Bradford was now Governor, and he returned a quiet letter, that so general had been the disease through the winter, that the living had scarcely been able to bury the dead, and the well not in any means sufficient to attend the sick. However, they succeeded in putting some lumber and peltry on the *Fortune*, on her home voyage, only a part of which reached England, as she encountered a French ship, which overhauled her. The second winter passed calmly, and with much less suffering than the previous one. It was a very orderly community, not indulging in much pleasure, and yet not without quiet enjoyment. There were few books in the colony besides the Bible and hymn book, of which, indeed, there were very few copies.

A little revelry was attempted on Christmas day, by some of the young men who had come over in the *Fortune*, but this was promptly checked by Governor Bradford. The young men had said that it was against their conscience to work on Christmas day, and had, therefore, been excused from their tasks, but when the Governor returned at noon and found them playing at ball and pitching quoits in the street, he remarked that it was against his conscience to let others play while he worked. No doubt, however, there was good fellowship among the people, and many an hour of not unpleasant gossip in the twilight. The firm, religious faith of the people, and their sincere devotional exercises, were a great source of gladness and strength to them, and a help to that

statesman-like order which made their little settlement so admirable. The Narragansett Indians at one time showed hostile intentions. The best description of their dealings with the colonists can be found in Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish." They sent a bundle of arrows, tied together with the skin of a rattlesnake. It was a challenge to war. Miles Standish, swelling with rage, stuffed the snake skin full of bullets and returned it. It was answer enough. The Narragansetts left the colonists undisturbed, but it was thought best to palisade the town, and to keep the men in martial order, ready at any time for an attack. Toward spring, a fort was built on the spot called Burial Hill.



MILES STANDISH FILLING THE RATTLESNAKE SKIN WITH BULLETS

In the summer of 1622, a number of men were sent to the colony, who were of a very vicious nature, and this occasioned the first actual difficulty with the Indians. They were a lazy, mischievous and disorderly set of men, whom it was a great burden for the colony to support. It became necessary to send them away, such an offense were they to the upright and moral founders of the community, and Plymouth rejoiced greatly when these unruly fellows set up a separate colony at Wessagusset, which we know as Weymouth. The manner in which these young men treated the Indians was shameful. Not only did they deal unfairly with them, but were guilty of actual crimes toward them, and toward their women, which made them most obnoxious. Even an Indian is a judge of character, and they soon perceived

that they had to do with a lot of bullies, who, like all people of their class, were lacking in true courage. One of the colonists stole corn from the Indians, and his fellows decided to hang him, to appease their wrath. They had some doubt, however, about the advisability of wasting a strong and vigorous man, as the culprit chanced to be, and it was proposed by an economical wag to hang an old and feeble man in his place, but fortunately for the old and feeble man, this was overruled. So offensive did this colony become that the Massachusetts Indians finally made up their minds to kill the whole of them off, and be well rid of them. They supposed that such an act would greatly offend the Plymouth colonists and call for active revenge, and, therefore, thought it best to kill all of the English. A very slight accident prevented the entire massacre of the colonists. Massasoit, the great Sagamore, fell very sick, and two delegates from the Plymouth company were sent to his place to express sympathy, and give help, if possible. They found the chief very ill, but by careful nursing and some simple medicine, restored him to health. The gratitude of the Sagamore was great, and he revealed the plan against the colonists. Captain Standish started out with eight sturdy men, and visited their disorderly neighbors at Wessagusset. He found them in a bad state, physically and morally, and quite unwilling to do anything in their own defense. Standish, therefore, engaged in a hand-to-hand struggle with the chiefs of the hostile tribes, and succeeded in killing two of them. Afterward, there followed a skirmish in an open field, but without loss. The head of one of the chiefs was taken to Plymouth, and exposed as a warning to the natives. As for the Wessagusset men, part of them went up to the Maine colonies, and the rest joined the pilgrims at Plymouth. The peace-keeping Puritans over in Holland heard of this engagement with deep regret. They could not well understand how their old friends should have reached a point where they could shed blood. It was quite impossible for them to know anything about the conditions.

A little later than this, another colony was started by Robert Gorges, who was now Governor of the entire territory known as Massachusetts, upon the very spot where the Wessagusset colony had been, but his people became discouraged in a short time and only a handful remained.

So dissatisfied did the people become with their articles of agreement with the London adventurers, which called for so much work, and from which they personally reaped no benefit, that it became necessary to make some change. They followed the example of the

Virginian colony, and gave to each man a certain quantity of land to work on his own account. As in Virginia, also, this was the beginning of prosperity. The colonists took a deeper interest in the land which they now could call their own.

At another time they had a struggle to preserve their independence, because John Pierce, procuring a second patent, wished to make them his tenants. This would have started a land system like that in England, but, fortunately for the colonists, Pierce met with such losses in sending a ship to America that he was persuaded to return the grant. The Puritans still remaining in Holland were very anxious to join their friends in Plymouth, but the London Company objected to this, and wished to force upon the devout Puritans people of a different sort. To this end they sent over a minister, named Lyford. He had been in Plymouth but a short time when he tried to introduce the old service of the Church of England. The Puritans resented this with pride and fierceness, and finally sent the minister and his friends from the colony. He had drawn about him many discontented spirits, among them John Oldham, who was finally expelled, with much disgrace, at the butt ends of the muskets of the sturdy Puritans. The company in London defended the action of Lyford, and finally refused to be responsible for the fate of the Puritans. This left the colonies without protection. They could no longer rely upon supplies from England, and were left to work out their own destiny. With such brave and stalwart men, nothing better could have happened. To be independent with them was to be successful. They sent for their friends in Leyden, but their dear old pastor, Robinson, whom they looked forward with so much pleasure to meeting, died, like Moses, in sight of the promised land. The colonists did not hear the last of Lyford for some time, for the London adventurers saw fit to send him over again to found a colony upon Cape Ann, a district which the pilgrims protested belonged to them, by right of a patent made out to Robert Cushman and Winslow. The choleric Miles Standish nearly got into an engagement with the Englishmen at Cape Ann, but finally made a compromise, by which they were to work together in the production of salt, and so lived amicably. But this colony came to little, though a company was formed at Dorchester, England, which sent out for three successive years men and cattle. The colonists went back to England, or scattered along the coast, and a few of them settled on the spot we now call Salem. Meanwhile, the Plymouth colonists had got some cattle, three heifers, and a great white bull.

The days went on peacefully now. On Sundays, everyone who was not sick met at the little church. The men sat upon one side and the women on the other, with those of noble rank quite by themselves. The little boys, very impatient at the long service, were crowded on the pulpit stairs and guarded by constables. These constables each had a wand, with a hare's foot on one end, and a hare's tail on the other. They used this to keep the people from sleeping. A woman's forehead, if by any chance she nodded, was only touched with the tail, but if any naughty little boy went to sleep, he was promptly pounded with the hare's foot. The services were three or four hours long, and the sexton stood near the minister, turning over the great hour-glass as it emptied. It was not until 1836 that they got the Metrical Bay Psalm-Book, with its great black notes and rugged lettering. They knew less than a dozen tunes, and sung these over and over, year in and year out. The houses were scrupulously neat. Most of them were one story in height, built of logs, with very steep roofs. In course of time a few wood and brick houses were built, two stories high in front, and one behind. The windows had many panes, and opened on hinges like a casement, and the huge fire-places admitted logs which would burn for nearly the whole day. There were no clocks, only sun-dials, and many of the houses were built facing the south, so that the sun at noon would fall square on the floor, and tell them it was mid-day. The law allowed none of them to wear finery, unless he or she could prove that it could be afforded. All through the week the women wore home-spun, and on Sunday brought out from their chests the silk hoods or lace neckerchiefs which had been brought across the sea. Miles Standish kept the soldiers well drilled. They had match-lock muskets, fired by a slow match instead of a percussion cap. So heavy were these weapons that even these sturdy soldiers had to have a large iron fork stuck in the ground to hold them. They were belted with bandoliers, which contained a sword and a dozen tin cartridge-boxes. Steel helmets and iron breast-plates were not unknown, although many of the colonists wore padded overcoats to keep off the arrows of the Indians. To be a voter, one must also be a church member. In everything, religion ruled. The State had no existence without the Church.

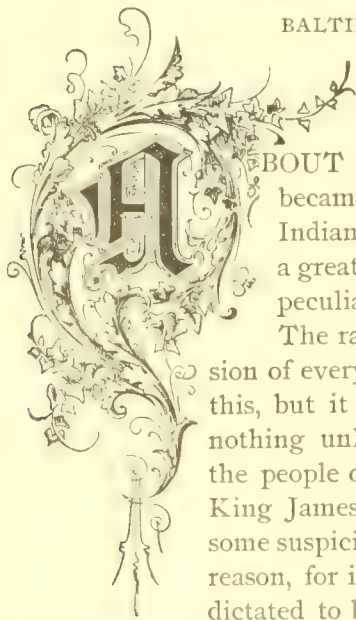
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Cheever's "Journal of the Pilgrims at Plymouth."
 BIOGRAPHY—Anderson's "Women of the Puritan Times."
 FICTION—H. M. Whiting's "Faith White's Letter-Book."
 E. N. Sears' "Pictures of the Olden Times."
 Mrs. J. B. Webb's "The Pilgrims of New England."
 POETRY—Whittier's "The Garrison of Cape Ann."

CHAPTER XIV.

The Reward of Treachery.

THE MASSACRE AT JAMESTOWN—LORD BALTIMORE AND THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND—THE LIBERAL LAWS OF THE BALTIMORE SETTLEMENT.



ABOUT the time that the little Plymouth colony became alarmed at the threatening attitude of the Indians, the colony in Jamestown, Virginia, suffered a great calamity. The condition of the colony was peculiar. In one way it did not lack prosperity. The raising of tobacco was continued to the exclusion of everything else. Laws were made to regulate this, but it is a well-known fact that a law is good for nothing unless the people will agree to enforce it, and the people of Virginia did not wish this law enforced. King James had begun to look upon the colony with some suspicion. He suspected treason, and not without reason, for it was quite true that they did not care to be dictated to by their governors at home. Sir Edward

Sandys was thought to be a man of too much intellect to safely act as treasurer of a community which was so rapidly increasing in power, and the Earl of Southampton was appointed in his place. Sir George Yeardley retired from the governorship in 1622, giving place to Sir Francis Wyat. These were all men of sense, and they did what they could for Virginia. They tried to raise grapes for the purpose of making wine, but they do not seem to have understood the art very well, for the wine had a trick of souring before they got ready to drink it. Mulberry trees and silk worms were brought over to start the cultivation of silk, but for all of that, most of the colonists were dressed in rags. Workmen were brought from Italy and employed in the glass works, and about the same time iron works were started. The Americans began making their own salt, and building their own ships,

and saw-mills were put up by Dutchmen, but this work was very slow, and none of it really successful. They spent all their time, strength and money in the raising of tobacco, so that, fourteen years after the colony was started, there was next to no barley, oats or peas in the country, and even at this period they were frequently threatened with starvation. In the meantime, they treated the Indians with the same selfishness and lack of wisdom which they showed in all other matters. The Indians had, no doubt, long intended to take revenge. However that may be, suddenly, on the 22d of March, 1692, the Indians, loitering about the village, rushed upon the people in the fields and in the houses and slaughtered them.

They did not even spare the little children, but killed all, regardless of the innocence of their victims. They went further than this, and hacked at the dead bodies with a wild cruelty of which only the American Indian is capable when he becomes imbruted by the sight of blood. The houses and barns of the people were burned and their animals killed. This did not occur in Jamestown, but in the little outlying villages and plantations. Jamestown would have suffered the same fate, but for the warning which one friendly Indian carried the night before. All who could, took refuge within the city, and took every possible means for defense. The panic was wide-spread. Some of the smaller places were entirely deserted, and it was many years before the plantations recovered from the harm which this did to them, for men were afraid to remain in isolated places. After this there was no mercy shown upon either side. The English were quite as cruel and remorseless as the Indians had been. The corn-fields, the fishing weirs, the villages of the natives, were entirely destroyed. Whenever a white man saw an Indian he shot him, and blood-hounds and mastiffs were trained to follow and tear them to pieces. The King seemed to blame the colonists for the present state of affairs. The company was still more dissatisfied than the King, and out of the various misunderstandings which grew from this, and the disregard the colony paid to the King's wishes, came the breaking up of the Virginia Company. The government of the colony was put into the hands of a commission, with Sir Thomas Smith at the head.

The unhappy people of Virginia were long in recovering from their calamity. The people were crowded once more into close quarters, and there was a great deal of sickness, of discouragement, and of hunger. Their viciousness took another, and yet more dreadful form. It was turned from wantonness and selfishness to revenge. They prayed, with

a show of devotion, that the Indians might fall into their hands to be murdered and bereft of all that they owned. There was no longer any show of Christian kindness. If the colonists were filled with revenge, they were none the less troubled with fear, and it was a long, long time before they dared venture back to the cultivation of their plantations. This great anxiety about home matters made them rather indifferent about the whims of the London Council, and they worried little because their patent was taken away from them. After King James died, very little attention was paid to them one way or the other, and if they received no benefit, neither did they receive any checks from across the ocean. Four colonial governors served in turn, but they were displaced for the first royal governor, Sir John Harvey, who was sent over by the English King to administer royal laws after the King's own views. How the people, who had so long been independent, detested this arrangement, can well be imagined.

Shortly before the appointment of Harvey, Jamestown had had a distinguished visitor. It was Lord Baltimore, a Catholic English nobleman of much wealth and culture. Virginia was quite in excitement about the visit of so distinguished a gentleman, and the council grew so curious that they officially inquired why he had come, and how long he was going to stay. The Virginians were neither the Church of England people nor Puritans—the Puritans having come later—and they objected to a settlement of Catholics among them. They, therefore, put the oath of allegiance to the colony to him, which was of such a nature that he could not take it, for religious reasons, and the colonists were glad of this excuse to ask him to return to England. Seeing that his visit was disagreeable, he courteously withdrew from the colony, but left his family behind him at Jamestown. One reason why he was disliked at the colony was because he was principal Secretary of the State to King James for the last five or six years of that monarch's life, and the difficulty between King James and the colony was naturally visited upon Lord Baltimore. He held a grant to some lands in the southeast part of Newfoundland, and had there a Protestant colony, which he had established. It was after visiting this, and finding the climate not to his liking or at all suited to his delicate health, that he came to Virginia. This was in the spring of 1629. Leaving Virginia, he visited Chesapeake Bay, was charmed with that region, and begged the King to give him a patent to it. This the King willingly did, but before the patent was signed, Lord Baltimore died, and it was left for his son to carry out his plans. The new Lord Baltimore named the

region Maryland, in honor of the Queen. The charter included all the country lying in the irregular triangle formed by the 40th degree of latitude, the Potomac river and Chesapeake Bay, as well as that part of the Peninsula between the ocean on the east, and Bay of Chesapeake on the west, with a line dividing it from the rest, drawn from the headland, called Watkins Point. With very slight changes, this is the State to-day. The grant gave this property to the Lords of Maryland absolutely, as long as they were faithful in their allegiance to the King. Not even taxes were required. No gift could have been more complete. All the acknowledgment required of Lord Baltimore was that twice a year he was to send to the King two Indian arrows as a token of fealty. But the charter did not overlook the rights of the colonists. It gave the people the right to call themselves together to take part in framing the laws which were to govern them. No religious nor political distinctions were made, but Maryland was to be the home of all Englishmen who wished to move there. Lord Baltimore found himself unable to go with the first expedition, and sent his brother Leonard in his stead, and with him two friends, also cultivated and able gentlemen, Jerome Hawley and Thomas Cornwallis. The Catholics were being greatly persecuted at this time, and Maryland became a refuge for them. In addition to the many gentlemen of wealth and influence who resorted thither, were many mechanics and laborers, and two Jesuit priests, whose simple and tender lives have made a white page in history. These were Father Andrew White and Father John Althan. The former of these wrote the only narrative which was kept of the experiences of the colony, which was composed of about three hundred souls. They were borne to America on *The Ark* and *The Dove*, starting November, 1633. They encountered many dangers on their passage from storms, pirates and war-like Spaniards, but at length reached Jamestown, where they were entertained for a week by Governor Harvey. The early part of March they sailed to their own possessions, and turning up the Potomac river, were enchanted with what they found. The groves of beneficent trees, the many inflowing streams and stately bluffs persuaded them that they could not have found a better place for a settlement. They landed first upon Blackstone Island, which then covered four hundred acres of land in the midst of the Potomac. It is now two centuries since, and nothing is left of these islands but sandy shoals. The 25th of March, the day of the landing, was the day of the annunciation of the most Holy Virgin, and they celebrated mass upon the beach, at the close of which they planted a cross

of wood upon the highest part of the island, taking possession of it for our Savior and for our Sovereign Lord, the King of England.

They used much tact in their first dealing with the Indians, asking permission of them to settle upon their land. It was a piece of good fortune for them that they chanced to meet with Captain Fleet, an Englishman, quietly trading in peltries upon his own account. He had been a prisoner for several years among the Indians, and was on excellent terms with them. Through his influence the colonists were soon in friendly trade with the natives, and the danger of hostility was averted. Fleet guided them through the forests and up the rivers, showing them the best points of the country, and advising them about the site of their first town; and at the end of the broad harbors on the noble bluff they decided to build. Behind it lay the beautiful valley which the people of Baltimore know, with growths of nut trees and oak and springs of clear water. On the bluff stood a huge mulberry tree, and standing by this, Leonard Calvert, the brother of Lord Baltimore, made his treaty with the Indians, who had a village upon that spot. The tribe was called Yaocomico, and for a certain payment in goods prized by the Indians, the strangers were to share their town with them until their harvest was gathered, after which the savages were to move elsewhere. The first village of Maryland was called St. Marys, and the expedition being managed by men of statesmen-like quality, and having in it workmen of strength and common sense, they immediately began building and planting. The Indians were of much help to them, teaching them not only how to plant native vegetables, but how to cook them in the best manner. Religious services were held from the first, and as soon as possible a neat little chapel was made. By the time the Indians had left them, quite a little town had been built, and some public buildings started on the bluff. Winter found them well provided, and already the liberality with which the government was conducted, began to invite the oppressed, not only from England, but from the Jamestown and Plymouth colonies as well, for in the Jamestown colonies Catholics were disapproved of, and in the Plymouth colonies the slightest deviation from the orthodox principles, as the Puritans held them, was promptly punished.

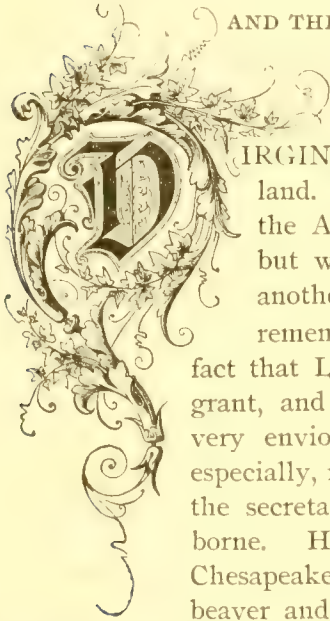
Lord Baltimore's city was the first one in America where every man was allowed to worship God after his own conscience.

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CHAPTER XV.

The Peace-Keepers.

PROSPERITY OF THE MARYLAND SETTLEMENT—CONSPIRACIES AGAINST THEM—THE TRIUMPH OF VIRGINIA OVER THEM, AND THE PERSECUTION OF THE CATHOLICS—CALVERT'S SUCCESS AND THE RETURN OF THE JESUITS.



VIRGINIA disapproved of the new colony of Maryland. There was, certainly, ground enough upon the Atlantic coast for both of those settlements, but whether there was policy enough, was quite another question. The Virginians, it will be remembered, had lost their royal charter, and the fact that Lord Baltimore's colony came with the royal grant, and with the royal encouragement, made them very envious. One man in the Virginian colony, especially, resented the settlement of Maryland. It was the secretary of the Virginian Council, William Clayborne. He had taken possession of Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, and built a store-house there, for the beaver and other furs, in which he traded extensively.

When Baltimore's people came, Clayborne said that he owned the island, and he refused in advance to leave it.

The Virginians had sent a protest to the King against the settlement of Maryland, but it had been decided in England that Baltimore's patent should not be destroyed, and both colonies were advised to be as amiable as possible. Amiability, however, was not in Clayborne's line. He had worked hard upon the ground where the Marylanders now settled, and he felt that he had a right to it. Being a willful and strong-minded man, he took the worst methods for preserving that right. He incited the Indians against the colonists, who found it necessary to build a block-house for refuge, in case of attack; but as the Indians met with nothing but kindness from the settlers, they became persuaded at

length that Clayborne had misinformed them. The Marylanders tried to capture Clayborne, but he knew the ways of the woods too well for them to succeed, and reached Jamestown, where he worked upon the prominent men, and won them to his side of the case.

When the spring of 1635 came, and Clayborne wished to carry out his usual trading trip, he started for his island with a small vessel, called the *Long Tail*. The Marylanders met him with two armed pinnaces, under the command of Cornwallis. The *Long Tail* was seized after a vigorous fight, two of the Virginians being killed and one of Cornwallis' men. Then the people of Jamestown were in a great state of mind. They gathered in the streets, and talked and talked. They called an assembly and talked some more. No one had any sympathy with the Marylanders' defense of their property, except the royal Governor Harvey. So indignant did the people become with him that they sent him to England to be tried, but he was promptly sent back again by the King, with an inquiry as to what right they had to arrest a governor appointed by him.

The people in Maryland, finding that they were to be protected, went on working busily. Their harvest was a great success. They stored away enough corn for the winter, and sent one thousand bushels up to Plymouth, asking for salt-fish in exchange. The cattle and poultry which they had purchased from Virginia had been so well managed by certain experienced breeders of stock, that it had greatly increased, not alone supplying them with eggs, but allowed them plenty to kill and eat. The people were not long satisfied with the rude buildings which they had first built. They had met with sufficient prosperity to be able to send to England for bricks and other building material, and the houses which they erected were firm, and to some degree elegant. A manor was built for Governor Calvert, and within two or three years an excellent State House, in the form of a cross, was built upon the bluff. In front of it stood the famous mulberry tree, under which the first treaty had been made with the Indians, and upon this were nailed all the notices and State papers which the Governor issued. Here the little armed force gathered for drill, and here the town punishments were made. A little further back stood the church, and about it the church-yard.

Certain fashions were set in the building of those days which are noticeable now in the city of Baltimore. The ground floor and basements were made of red brick, or paved with square red tiles. Some of the houses were of red brick, ornamented here and there with black.

There were high, red brick walls, and stout chimneys built upon the outside, with the fire-places paved in red tile. Plantations began to be cultivated around the town, tobacco being the chief staple raised for exportation.

In 1635, Lord Baltimore began to make grants of lands to settlers. To those who had come upon the first voyage extensive grants were made, so that the pioneers became, to an extent, lords of the property. Mills were built, both at St. Mary's and on the plantations, so that it became possible for them to make their own flour, and to start various other home industries. Under these fortunate conditions people crowded to the colony, and, in 1635, it was found necessary to make a new code of laws. The simple rules, which were at first sufficient to control the community, were no longer adapted to their growing and complex civilization. But Lord Baltimore did not approve of the laws, and refused assent to them. Two years later he made out a code, but the assembly of the people would not accept his laws any more than he accepted their's. It was not because they objected to the laws that he made, but because they wished to govern themselves, and at last they had their way, though it was not for several years.

The Indians who lived about St. Mary's were always friendly to the settlement, but the Susquehanna Indians were the enemies of the Yaocomicos, and, therefore, of all whom the tribe were friendly to. In 1642 the Susquehannas opened quite a warfare with the Marylanders, which lasted for two years, when treaties were made.

The kindness which the Catholics of Maryland had shown to all people of other religions did not meet with a proper return. The Catholics were the friends of the King in England, but the Protestants preferred the Parliament, which, at this time, was having much difficulty in getting along with the King. So when the revolution came in England against the King, the people of Maryland were divided on this subject, and it put the Catholics against the Protestants in a way which made much trouble in the colony. Leonard Calvert became so troubled about the quarrels of the people he was trying to govern, that he sailed for England, to have a talk with his brother, Lord Baltimore, leaving Giles Brent to look after the colony.

This was a splendid chance for Clayborne to have revenge upon the Marylanders. He went to St. Mary's and stirred up the Protestants, or the Parliament faction, against the government of Baltimore, and his plans were aided in an unexpected way. Brent ordered that a vessel belonging to the Parliament party should be seized when it got to St.

Mary's, and its commander arrested on a charge of treason against the King. This made the Protestants very angry, and they allowed Clayborne to come in and take possession of his old island of Kent; so when Calvert returned he found everything in a very bad state, and he and his council and their friends were driven from the colony, and had to go to Virginia for safety. Captain Edward Hill, a Virginian, was made Governor, but everything was done about as Clayborne said. Though he was such a determined man, he did not understand how to govern, and while he remained, there was constant quarreling and dissatisfaction in the colony.

The Jesuit priests had to leave St. Mary's. They built a mission on the Bay of St. Inigo, and here Governor Calvert erected a fort, with a mill inside and a few buildings about, besides a chapel. Calvert collected his friends on the Virginia border, and in April surprised St. Mary's, and took it with but little trouble. The people seemed to have been glad to get back a man who would govern them with firmness and order. Captain Edward Hill was sent back to Virginia, and Clayborne escaped to Jamestown. Governor Calvert died in 1647, leaving Thomas Green to be his successor, and Mistress Margaret Brent the administratrix of his enormous possessions. She was a remarkable woman, with great strength of will, and a good understanding of business and government affairs.

Maryland continued to be free to people of all religions, and the gentle Catholic missionaries continued their work. In many ways this was the most successful colony in its beginning upon the Atlantic coast. Its leaders were men of good blood and training, with a sincere reverence for God, and some experience in government. Their laws were suited to the time and the people, and Lord Baltimore's name is still held in high regard in the city which is called after him.

FOR FURTHER READING:

1647-1648—SPENCER—Calvert.

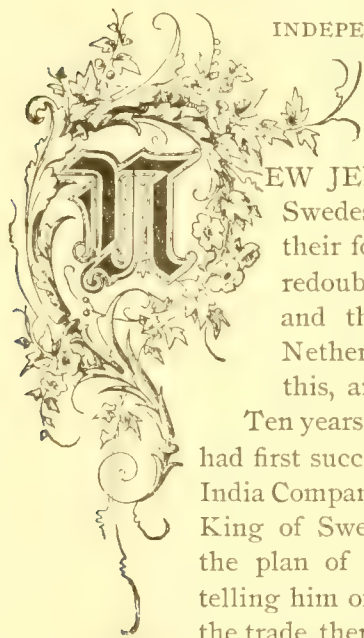
1647-1648—FOUNDED—Founders of Maryland.

FICTION—Mathilda Douglas' "Black Beard."

CHAPTER XVI.

A Brief Authority.

NEW JERSEY—THE SETTLEMENT UNDER PETER MINUET—OPPOSITION
OF THE DUTCH—THE TRIUMPHS OF THE DUTCH UNDER
PETER STUYVESANT—END OF SWEDISH
INDEPENDENCE IN AMERICA.



NEW JERSEY was the only State settled by the Swedes. In 1614, when the first Dutch settled their fort on Manhattan Island, they built also a redoubt on what is now the New Jersey shore, and the whole of this region they called New Netherlands. But little attention was paid to this, and the ground was practically unoccupied.

Ten years later, William Usselinex, of Antwerp, who had first succeeded in establishing the great Dutch West India Company, visited Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus was King of Sweden then, and before him, Usselinex laid the plan of founding a Swedish colony in America, telling him of the great profits which might arise from the trade there. The King was much impressed with

the business-like eloquence of the Dutchman, and perhaps still more impressed with the idea that another Christian church might be built upon savage shores. He felt that Sweden had been behind the other nations, and it would greatly add to his power and reputation if he were to further such a scheme. The Diet of Sweden favored the King's project, and, therefore, when Gustavus Adolphus was killed, in 1632, on the battle-field, the plans which he had laid were carried out. It was several years, however, before the company was formed, calling itself the Sweden West India Company. Peter Minuet, who had been discharged from his post as Governor, asked to have charge of its first expedition. It was given him, on account of the experience he had had, and in the autumn of 1637, he set sail from Gottenburg, with two

vessels and fifty emigrants. These vessels entered Delaware Bay and sailed up the river, which they named after their Queen, Christina. Minuet bought of the Indians all the land on the west side of South river, from Cape Henlopen to near where Trenton now stands. As usual in such purchases, the land was to run westward indefinitely. They built a fort near the present site of Wilmington.

The Dutch promptly resented this intrusion upon their territory, and sent down a sounding proclamation, which warned Minuet, in the most serious terms, that he was trespassing upon their rights; but the Swedes were charmed with the country so in contrast to their bleak native land, and were in no mind to leave it. Minuet had said, in answer to the first question asked him by the Dutch, that he came for wood and water, but as the Swedes began gardening and building, he was forced to confess the truth. To the Dutch proclamation, however, he paid no heed, but went on working upon his fort and trading house and establishing commerce with the Indians. Twenty-four men were placed in possession, and vessels were sent home well laden, to return with more emigrants. Though the Dutch were very indignant, they hesitated to venture against the determined and well-armed Swedes, who took a very flourishing trade away from the Dutch West India Company.

The first summer and winter passed pleasantly with them, but in the second winter their supplies became low, and they seriously thought, at one time, of going to the Dutch at Manhattan, or of finding a way for returning to their native home. In the spring, however, matters became better. Some trade was established in New Netherlands, and further additions to the colony came from Sweden, bringing with them abundant supplies. They were an exceedingly industrious and saving people. Their selection for a settlement had been most happy; they lived at peace with each other and with the Indians, and in a short time their little towns began to wear a look of vigorous prosperity, especially in the autumn, when more colonists came, with tools and mechanics to use them. Three ships, at least, came in the autumn, and it is said that many were anxious to come, but had been unable to do so for want of ship-room. The following summer (1641) Minuet died in the fort which he had built. The Swedes were much attached to him, and mourned him deeply. A Swede—Holleandare—became Governor in his place.

The English pursued toward them the policy which has made them the greatest nation in the world. They were bent on conquest, and constantly interfered with their quiet neighbors. At length a number

of New England colonists, under the charge of Robert Cogswell, left Connecticut and came to the South river, having heard that that region was especially beautiful. William the Testy, Governor of the Dutch, protested in his usual high-flown language, but the English quietly worked on, and before the end of the summer, had planted corn and built trading posts on Salem creek and on the Schuylkill. New Haven took these towns under her especial protection, and William the Testy knew that it would be useless to come in conflict with the New England confederation of colonies. The Swedes, as well as the Dutch, were vexed at this intrusion of the English, and in 1642, when the Dutch sent a commissary to force the intruders away, the people at Fort Christina gave them all the help they could. The English were obliged to yield. They were taken prisoners to Manhattan, and then sent to their own homes. New Haven thought it best not to resent this insult to her dignity.

About this time a fort was built twelve miles below where Philadelphia now stands, and called the New Gottenburg. The building of this was superintended by John Printz, a cavalry lieutenant in the Swedish service, who had been sent out to take the place of Holleandare as Governor. Near the fort, Printz built a manor house, magnificent for that time, which he called Printz Hall. The home government appropriated a large sum of money for the support of the colony, and promised to keep it supplied with soldiers. Printz was a very overbearing and proud man, who, from first to last, managed the affairs of the colony with decision and dignity. Neither English nor Dutch were allowed longer to take liberties with the Swedes. His fort of New Gottenburg compelled every vessel to show her colors as she passed, and no trade was allowed which did not pay tribute. The Dutch continued to send out fierce letters, but to these, a man like Printz was not likely to pay any attention. The English tried to trade on the rivers which the Swedes now claimed, but they were promptly arrested by order of the Governor, and the English learned that for once they were not to be allowed to have their own way.

In 1645, the rather amiable commissary at the Dutch fort, Nassau, was removed by William the Testy, of New Amsterdam. The officer who took his place was more aggressive in his nature, and seized the first opportunity to put the authority of the Swedes to test. Disputes began between the governors of the colonies, and much diplomacy, and, to tell the truth, no little deceit was used. When Hudde, the new Governor of the Dutch fort, tried to start a settlement on some land

which he had bought near the present site of Philadelphia, Printz sent some men to stop it, and the Dutch arms were torn down and used in a manner which greatly outraged the feelings of the patriotic colonists. Letters of great stateliness and hostility were exchanged, but the choleric Governor Printz refused to listen to the sensible advice of Hudde. When the sergeant, by whom Hudde had sent his letter, reached Printz Hall, and had got through the army of servants around it to where the Governor stood upon the steps, the letter was snatched from him and thrown carelessly to a man in waiting. After standing about unnoticed for some time, the Dutch soldier begged for a reply. This request was met in a way peculiar to the plethoric Printz, who weighed about four hundred pounds, and was a man of extraordinary muscle. He picked up the unfortunate sergeant and threw him violently out of doors, taking a gun for the purpose of shooting him. After this there could be nothing but quarrels between the two nations. The Dutch trade was rapidly decreasing, for the Swedes kept both them and the English off the valuable lands which they occupied, and from which the Dutch had formerly made much money. Large companies of settlers continued to come to New Sweden, and these later settlers were of a much better class than those which had come at first. When New Netherland was at its most abject state, under the mismanagement of William the Testy, New Sweden wore an air of considerable prosperity. From the mouth of the Schuylkill to the Capes of Henlopen and May, Governor Printz held absolute control. It was one of the richest territories on the Atlantic coast, with sweeping hills and magnificent forests of trees. Not only did they claim the lovely waters of the Delaware, but many streams and winding creeks as well. Before them lay the bay, one hundred miles in length.

When Peter Stuyvesant was appointed Governor of New Netherlands, the policy was somewhat changed. For several years Stuyvesant could do little but support Hudde in the position which he had taken, and to sustain, in a negative way, the title of the Dutch, but at length he found time to visit the Swedish territory, and, being an old soldier, saw immediately the cause of the Dutch failures. Fort Nassau, instead of being at the mouth of the Delaware, was far up the stream, and quite useless to protect against invasion. The Swedes had taken possession of the mouth of the Schuylkill. At the confluence of these two rivers, trade even then found its center. Printz had seen that this must be the case, and had built his forts there and barred the approach to that point by others further down the Delaware. Modern commerce has improved

the selection of Printz, by concentrating the shipping trade of Philadelphia at exactly this point. Stuyvesant saw that Fort Nassau was useless, and ordered its destruction. He bought from the Indians all the land from Christina to Bombay Hook. Within this territory, about four miles below the mouth of the Christina, is the bold promontory, which commands a view of the Delaware both up and down. On this point, where the town of Newcastle now stands, they built Fort Casimir. Governor Printz was indignant, and said that this was an invasion on the soil of the Swedes, but Stuyvesant seems to have quieted him in some way, and the Swedes no longer commanded the Delaware. Their fort at the mouth of the Salem creek was abandoned as useless, but Printz was too proud to tell the real reason for its evacuation, and gave it out that the mosquitoes had been too bad for them to remain there longer.

The Swedes and the Dutch were united about this time in a common fear. They dreaded the English much more than they did each other, and made a compact of mutual protection. It is certainly true that the English continued to cast envious eyes at the beautiful stretch of country with its genial climate and broad, noble hills. Besides, Englishmen do not like to be beaten, and will hardly admit defeat. They had not forgiven the Swedes and Dutch for uniting to drive them from this place a few years before, and, shortly after the compact between the two governors, sent a company of fifty persons from New Haven to make another attempt at an English settlement on the Delaware. They stopped at New Amsterdam to visit Governor Stuyvesant, and to tell him their purpose, but the independent Governor arrested them promptly, and only let them go when they promised to return to New Haven.

Printz, however, had nothing of the diplomat in his composition, and could not abide the Dutch so near him, so he sent to Sweden for aid, but his impatience would not let him wait until he received an answer, and he sailed for Sweden himself, passing on his way John Rysingh, with a force of about three hundred men, who had been sent out to his relief. The first act of this force was to demand the capture of Fort Casimir. The fort yielded without resistance, for they had no powder. The bark of the Dutch was apt to be much worse than their bite. Thus the Swedes were again in absolute possession of the South river, and all the Dutch in and about the fort were made to take the oath of allegiance to Sweden, or else forced to leave that part of the country. Fort Casimir was called Fort Trinity, because it was taken

on Trinity Sunday. It can be imagined that the excitement in New Amsterdam was great, and that the indignation meetings among the hot-headed Dutchmen were many. Governor Stuyvesant felt, with some justice, that he had been unfairly treated, and seized every opportunity for retaliation. In this, the directors in Holland sustained him, but the winter passed and spring came before he was able to make preparations for humbling the Swedes. At length a fleet of seven vessels, manned by a force of from six hundred to seven hundred men, sailed toward the South river. This was not until the 10th of September. All the Swedes in the country did not number more than half the invading force. Resistance was absurd. The Swedes surrendered, and a part of them were made to take the oath of allegiance to the high and mighty lords and pratroons of this New Netherland province. Next, Fort Christina was taken, and after a siege of twelve days, a third fort surrendered. The invaders destroyed the little village of Christinaham, burning the houses and killing the cattle and seizing all the plunder they could. At length Rysing surrendered, conditionally. It was declared that the property belonging to the Swedes was to be unmolested, and that all who wished could have free passage to Europe. So ended Sweden's rule in America. Some Swedes still lived along the banks of the Delaware and cultivated their farms, doing much to develop early the best resources of that country.

Stuyvesant appointed Johans Paul Jaquet as Governor over the southern territory of the West India Company. The Swedish colony was now called New Amstel, and the burgomasters of Amsterdam became much interested in their new possessions, making great offers to those who would move thither. The following years, however, were full of discontent. Malaria, as in all new agricultural settlements, weakened and dispirited the colonists, and though the farms promised well, the harvests were not plentiful, for insects of various sorts nearly destroyed the crops. Death became very frequent, especially among the children, and they came so near famine that they were obliged to use their seed corn for food. The Amsterdam Company no longer sent them supplies, as it had promised to do, and began to tax them. The colonists lost hope. Many moved to Virginia. Some returned to their own countries, and those who had contracted with the company to remain for a given length of time, escaped through the forest to the southern settlements.

FOR FURTHER READING.

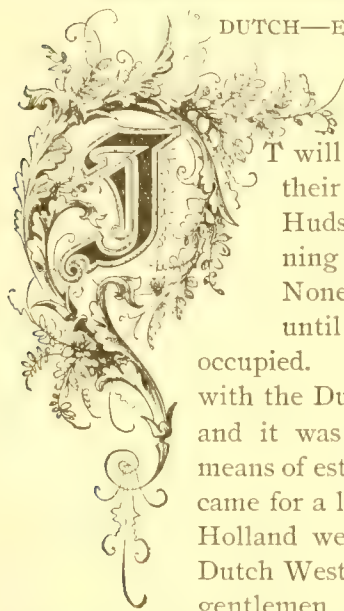
History of Cooper's - History of New Jersey.

Smith's - History of the Colony of New Jersey.

CHAPTER XVII.

Old Wine in New Bottles.

THE "PATROONS" OF NEW NETHERLAND—THE SETTLEMENT AT
MANHATTAN—THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE
DUTCH—ESTABLISHMENT OF POPULAR
LAND LAWS.



It will be remembered that we left the Dutch in their settlements upon Long Island and the Hudson, just at the time when they were beginning to feel the need of a firmer government. None of the settlements had been prosperous until they were given an interest in the land they occupied. It was certain that this scheme must be used with the Dutch, for New Amsterdam settled but slowly, and it was seen that trading-posts were not the best means of establishing civilization. Only poor emigrants came for a long time, but after a while rich men from Holland were sent out, and given privileges by the Dutch West India Company. Each of these important gentlemen was allowed to found a colony of fifty persons, and to own a tract of land sixteen miles in length on any shores or streams not yet occupied. Westward there was no limit placed on his possessions, which were allowed to run into the interior as far as they might—to the Pacific coast, had he but known there was a Pacific coast. His colony was to be established within four years from the time the land was granted him, and he was required, by just provision not usually employed, to pay the Indians for his land. His estate was called a "manor," and it was quite independent of colonial government. He was actually a lord of the soil, and lived in much elegance and with a full sense of importance, such as the men of his time and nation were apt to feel. These "patroons" as they were called, were allowed all privileges, except the manufacture of woollen or cotton goods, which the West India Company wished to keep a monopoly of. The company

supplied the manors with negro slaves, which they imported from Guinea, but after a time this feudal system began to give way. There seemed to be something in the air of the New World which was opposed to the pretensions of nobility. Even the stately patroons came to see, after awhile, that they were regarded more as land-holders than as lords.

It was so easy to see the injustice of giving a man such advantages over his fellows that the people would not patiently endure it. Nothing could more firmly prove that the plan of the government of Europe was, and is, false and wrong, since it fails to give men equal opportunities. It has existed so long in the Old World that it has almost come to seem right. Here, where it could be seen at its beginning, it was recognized as altogether wrong. The company had had a selfish reason for employing the feudal system in the New Netherlands. It believed that if it intrusted the care of immigration to the patroons it would be saved the expense of sustaining the government, and if each patroon protected his own property, with men established under him as serfs, there would be no need of any officers to do so. For, indeed, the people under these Dutch lords were little else than serfs. No "man or woman, son or daughter, man servant or maid servant," could leave a patroon's service during the time he had agreed to remain, except by his written consent. On the other hand, the patroon was under no obligations to his people, but could do as he saw fit. It brought about evils almost as great as those of slavery.

The right which was given to the patroons to settle upon any territory not yet occupied, soon began to affect the great West India Company. They had wished to secure and retain a monopoly of trade, but by the short-sighted means employed they defeated this. A number of the Amsterdam directors availed themselves of this opportunity, and settled upon immense tracts of land, to which they gave high-sounding names. When it was too late the company perceived what it had done. The enterprising directors hastened to settle colonies upon their land, and so settlements were spread down to the South river, along the shores of what we now call Delaware Bay, and to the present town of Louiston, Delaware. One director went over to Cape May and bought a large tract of land there. One of the largest settlements was on Bear's Island, about twelve miles below Albany, to Smack's Island, and extended two days' journey inland. Afterward this estate was carried to the confluence of the Mohawk, and thus it was again extended. Another director acquired a vast quantity of land opposite Manhattan

Island, and gave it the name of Hoboken—Hacking Island. This man afterward got the whole of Staten Island, and then the region where Jersey City now stands. Upon this estate the owner bestowed the name of Pavonia.

The patroons were not satisfied to confine themselves to agriculture. They began a most profitable trading in peltries, so that the exports of Holland, in 1626, were valued at six thousand guilders. This, of course, was an infringement upon the rights of the Dutch Company, which drew up an order forbidding any one to deal in peltries, maize or wampum. The constant disputes which arose out of this greatly delayed the progress of New Netherland.

The colony founded in Delaware, where Louiston now stands, was called Swaanendael, or the Valley of Swans, and here a curious thing happened. A pillar had been set up bearing the arms of Holland, in token of possession. This an Indian chief saw, and thinking it would make delightful pipes, took it down and proceeded to make it up into them. But to this piece of symbolical tin the Dutch attached a great deal of importance, and the officer left in charge of the colony fretted and fumed, with many high-sounding Dutch words, until the Indians, thinking that their chief had committed a terrible crime, put him to death in hopes of regaining the friendship of the Dutch. The officer explained then that his wild gestures and oaths had simply meant that he wished to have the chief reproved. The Indians were naturally out of patience to find that they had made such a sacrifice to so little a purpose, and soon after, a party scattered themselves through the town in a friendly manner, and then fell upon and murdered every person at the post, leaving nothing but the ruins of the burned houses. Peter Minuet, returning from Europe at this time, thought best to make a treaty of peace with these Indians, and with the representatives of all other tribes which he met. He went to Jamestown instead of visiting the Dutch colony, which was at that time without a governor.

A short time after this Wouter Van Twiller was sent over from Holland as Governor. He had married a niece of Van Rensselaer, the chief of the patroons, and came in much state and great finery. He had just got settled in his manor at New Amsterdam when an English vessel came into the harbor. The officers of the vessel dined with Van Twiller and his ceremonious Dutch friends, and made a great show of courtesy, but they coolly announced their intention of going up the river to trade with the Indians. Of course, all the Dutchmen fell into a rage. They swore that the English should not trespass upon their

grounds, and in a warlike fever caused the flag of Orange to be raised over the fort and saluted with three guns, while the English quietly sailed on their way up the stream. Van Twiller saw that more active measures would have to be taken, so he got all the people in the fort before his door and ordered a barrel of wine to be brought out.

Upon this he mounted and set the example to his men of drinking glass after glass in defiance of the Englishmen. In the meantime the English had sailed out of sight. Several days after a force of soldiers did go after the scornful Englishmen and compelled them to return, but the Governor's reputation was gone.

Though the settlement at Manhattan was twenty years old, it was still little more than a trading post. The company seemed to sap its strength. The interest was not so much in the soil as the money that could be got out of the country. Some new houses had been built which were firm and substantial, and three great wind-mills had been erected. About one hundred soldiers were well quartered. A good church had been built and shops established by various tradesmen. But it was lacking in that appearance of permanence and domesticity which characterized the New England colonies.

Nothing could have been more crooked than the streets. The houses were of wood, with gable ends built of small black and yellow bricks, brought over from Holland. The doors and windows were many, and the date of the building of the house was put in iron letters in the gable; frequently the name of the builder was added. The Hollanders were noted for their cleanliness. Indeed, the people of Holland were scrupulously clean, at a time when the most cultivated people of England were walking on dirty rushes and had not yet learned to clean out their courts. The Dutch in the New Netherlands spun linen as they had done in the old country, and heaped up their closets with it. Their silver and brass-ware was kept perfectly polished. The floors were covered with white sand, on which figures were traced with a broom. Their stately furniture had claw-feet of metal. The time was told by hour-glasses and sun-dials, and neither of the time-pieces were allowed to keep the pompous Dutchmen in a rush. They ate plenty and drank plenty, knew how to tell a good story and how to laugh at it, and were forever having betrothal feasts, wedding banquets and gala days. Christmas, as we celebrate it, is a custom introduced by the Dutch. They taught us how to make and exchange colored eggs at Easter, and but for them, we should never have had the practice of New Year's calling. They loved to smoke and to drink, and their

hospitality was very great. The reputation for this their descendants have never lost. Then, as now, the Dutch housekeepers were excellent cooks, and were especially noted for the delicious cakes and cookies which they made, and which everyone who went to their houses had to share with them.

Though religion was not, as in Plymouth, the object of their lives, they went to church steadily and held their "dominies" in high esteem. There was a great deal of comfort, but little money, and wampum or beaver skins were frequently used in the place of money. The women dressed as they had done in Holland, with short, bright-colored, quilted petticoats, and knitted stockings of bright green, purple, or red. About their heads were white muslin caps, beneath which their hair was plastered down with pomatum. The portly Dutchman—and they were all portly—wore coats of linsey-woolsey, with wide skirts and large buttons of brass or silver. They sported several pairs of knee breeches, one over the other, with long, knitted stockings and immense buckles at their knees and on their shoes. One of their chief industries was ship building. They were very proud of their vessels, and gave them remarkable names, such as "*The Angel Gabriel*" and "*King Solomon*."

Van Twiller became so ridiculous in his management of the New Netherlands that he was removed, and William Kieft, who afterward acquired the name of "William the Testy," was sent out. He found things in a very bad state. There had been altogether too much drinking, too much smoking of pipes and telling of stories. The walls of the fort were down, the houses in need of repairs, the work shops in a useless condition. William the Testy began to straighten out things at once, not as may be imagined in the most amiable way. The company had bought back Pavonia and the Valley of the Swans, and thus checked some of the abuses of the patroons' rule. Affairs reached a crisis, for the people were becoming impatient at having first one monopoly and then another over them, and, therefore, the council of nineteen, at Old Amsterdam, decided that each man should have as much land as he could properly cultivate, and the Dutchmen were given free passage to New Netherland. Affairs began to improve immediately, not only along Staten Island, but away up to Albany.

But with the English there had been many difficulties, and they were steadily encroaching upon the land claimed by the Dutch.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Davis' "History of New Amsterdam"

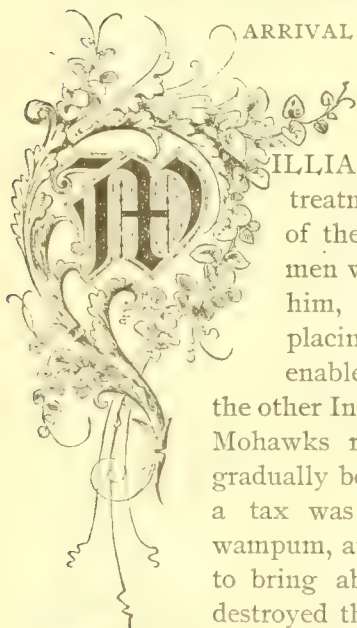
FICTION—P. H. Myres' "The First of the Knickerbockers,"

P. H. Myres' "The Young Patroon"

CHAPTER XVIII.

Knickerbocker Days.

THE GOVERNMENT OF WILLIAM THE TESTY—TROUBLE WITH THE
INDIANS—THE NIGHT ATTACK ON PAVONIA—REVENGE
OF THE INDIANS—DISMISSAL OF KIEFT AND
ARRIVAL OF PETER STUYVESANT.



WILLIAM THE TESTY was no wiser in his treatment of the Indians than in his government of the Dutch. The frauds of which the traders were constantly guilty were not checked by him, and the serious mistake was made of placing guns in their hands. The Mohawks were enabled to arm four hundred men. This made the other Indian tribes very envious, and even while the Mohawks remained friendly, the other tribes were gradually becoming hostile. When at last, in 1640, a tax was laid upon the Indians, exacting corn, wampum, and furs from them, the injustice was enough to bring about an open war. The Raritan Indians destroyed the settlement on Staten Island, in revenge for which William the Testy offered a bounty for the head of every Raritan which should be brought to him. Later in the year—this was in 1641—a young Indian chief murdered a farmer in retaliation for the killing of his uncle. Another private murder was committed by an Indian, and these two crimes aroused the enmity of all of the Dutch settlements. At the same time, the people considered it wisest and best to use policy. Governor Kieft, however, had nothing politic in his nature. He wished to send out an armed force against the Indians, and would have done so immediately had the people not protested. The tribes at the lower part of the river were not a prey to the enmity of their white neighbors alone, but were constantly harassed by the powerful Mohawks. Many of them had to flee from the coast into

those dark and interminable forests which stretch westward. Some of these unhappy Indians at last had to take refuge with the whites, so merciless were their Indian foes, and by some of the whites they were treated with great kindness. But certain of the twelve selectmen of New Amsterdam insisted upon attacking the Indians at Pavonia, across the river; and, though the wiser men of the community tried to dissuade them from this action, an armed force was sent to fight them in the dead of night. Perhaps one thousand Indians in the encampment were sleeping quietly in their tents. So sudden was the onslaught that the unfortunate victims believed that it was the Indians from Fort Orange who had fallen upon them, and some of them actually fled to the Dutch settlement for protection, only to learn who their true enemies were.

One hundred and twenty Indians were murdered that night, with horrible and indescribable tortures. The limbs and arms were hacked from the little children. They were bound to boards, then cut to pieces. Some of them were thrown into the river to make their parents go after them, where they were kept at bay, by the muskets of the Dutch, until they were drowned. Those who escaped, and came out in the morning to beg for food, were killed in cold blood. Some were drowned, and some burned to death. The troops, marching back to the fort in the morning, were received with many praises.

Then, over all the colonies, broke a wave of war and outrage. Everywhere in New Netherland, farmers were killed and wives and children carried away into a terrible imprisonment. Now and then a sort of a half peace was made, only to be broken—first on one side, and then on the other. Late in the summer the tribes on the Hudson Highlands began an open warfare, and made it impossible for trading boats to come up the river. Ann Hutchinson, the witty woman preacher, was killed near New Rochelle. Savages crept into the very villages and murdered men in the twilight. The people had no longer any patience with Kieft. They felt that his terrible cruelty had been responsible for all this suffering. He appointed a council to help him decide upon this difficult matter; and, under this council, a large force of soldiers were armed and thoroughly drilled, with John Underhill at their head. John Underhill was a Massachusetts captain. A petition was sent to the states general of Holland for help—a petition eloquent with fear and suffering. Through the winter which followed, they lived in a terrible state of anxiety, crowded together at the southern end of the island, and being afraid to venture beyond their

own doors. Occasionally, the Dutch would sally out and succeed in making a small skirmish, which only added to the Indians' hatred.

There was a little settlement called Hempstead, on Long Island, where a number of English families were settled. These had been exceedingly annoyed by the Indians near them, and prayed that they might be protected by the Dutch. Consequently, one hundred and twenty soldiers made an attack on two Indian villages, which they sacked, killing more than one hundred braves, and carrying some to Manhattan, where they were tortured.

Later, the little army marched through the snow-covered forests upon the principal village of the Long Island Indians. This they fired, and furnished light to do a most murderous deed. Only sixty-eight of seven hundred Indians escaped. The Dutch had fifteen men wounded. After this, the proud spirit of the Indians was broken, and, when a fresh force of one hundred and thirty soldiers was sent to New Netherland, the Indians sulkily retreated to their forests.

These soldiers were a terrible burden to the poverty-stricken settlement, and Kieft made the great mistake of taxing beer for their support. This was the one thing under the sun which the Dutchmen would not have taxed, and they begged for Kieft's dismissal. They had to wait a whole year before their prayer was answered. In the meantime, the Indians lurked under the very palisades which they had built for their protection, and which stood on a line with the present Wall street, which, of course, took its name from that ancient fortification. The following spring the Indians signed a treaty of peace with the Dutch, and gathering upon the spot still known as the Battery, smoked the pipe of peace with them. In the wars of the last few years sixteen hundred of the Indians had been killed, and nearly all of the Dutch settlements had been destroyed. In all the province there were no more than three hundred men capable of bearing arms, and the settlers prayed for a new Governor, who should bring to them peace and quietness.

In the Connecticut valley, the English had steadily crowded upward, until Dutch control was gone. Fort Nassau, however, was still retained by the Dutch, and established as an important Indian trading post.

On May 27, 1647, Peter Stuyvesant, the new Governor of the New Netherlands, arrived. He was an old soldier of bravery and experience, and lost a leg in his country's service. He wore, in the place of that member, a wooden leg bound with silver. The solemn burghers met him with uncovered heads, and he allowed them, it is said, to stand in



END OF WARD 1882

PETER STAVESANT DEFIANT.
Dressed out in the style of an American.

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the sun for several hours in this way, and seated himself with great ceremony while they remained standing. These king-like airs were not well received, but, in a short time, the honest vigor of the man began to be felt in the colony, and his very tyranny was in happy contrast to the former governor's weakness. The men who had brought a complaint against Kieft were not sustained by Stuyvesant. He said it was treason to petition against magistrates, very wisely thinking that it would not do to allow such an example to pass unproved, for he knew that he himself might soon meet with popular disfavor. The men who had complained of Kieft's abuses were tried and condemned to suffer severe punishments.

The West India Company was no longer much interested in the colony, and left the severe and angry-natured Stuyvesant to do as he pleased. As for Kieft, he started to sail for Holland, but his ship was pounded to pieces on the Welsh rocks, and, at the last, he was seized with repentance for the murders which he had committed and the cruelty with which he had treated his friends. The two men who had been persecuted, because of their complaints against him to the Governor at Holland, were on the ship with him, and he called them to him, saying: "Friends, I have been unjust toward you; can you forgive me?"

Governor Stuyvesant began to lay heavy taxes upon the people, and, though in many ways they lived safely and well under him, with a sense of security in his firmness and courage, they nevertheless felt that he was an unjust Governor. He was assisted in his affairs by a board of nine men. These men were only allowed to advise the Governor. They could make no laws, and give no orders without his approval. One of the first things which Governor Stuyvesant tried to do, was to come to a pleasant understanding with the English; but though the English wrote polite letters, they were not inclined to remove their boundaries farther from the Dutch, and they even claimed that they held the first title to Long Island. Finally, a Dutch captain seized an English ship, and, against this high-handed act, Governor Eaton, of New Haven, protested vigorously. Henceforth, he and Governor Stuyvesant wrote hot and furious letters to each other, and the two Governors quarreled about things which school-boys might have been ashamed to get angry over. He got in disfavor with his own colonists at the same time, by putting a check upon their tradings with the Indians, for, in spite of his forbiddance, they sold the Indians arms and ammunition. It was through this cause that he got into his fierce

quarrel with the young patroon, Van Rensselaer, for the old patroon of that name was now dead. He could not well control a lord owning such vast extent of territory, and used to exercising such power, without getting into trouble. When the young patroon defied Stuyvesant's authority, the Governor sent a squad of soldiers to enforce it. These he ordered to take stone and timber from the patroon's land for the purpose of repairing the fortifications at Fort Orange, but the people of the village around about, who were loyal to the young lord, would not permit such intrusion, even from their great Governor, and, for once, Peter the Headstrong failed to have his way. So, with many jealousies and small envies, the next few years of the New Netherland colonies went on. Any one wishing to study the history of New York can find plenty, both amusing and instructive, in the pages of the old State chronicles, but, for one who wishes to take a broad and hasty view of national history, it is hardly worth while to linger over the foolish quarrels and pretensions of these Dutch burghers.

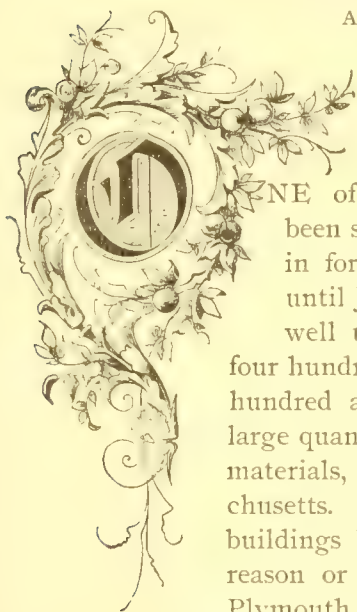
FOR FURTHER READING

FICTION—Cooper's "Water-Witch."
J. H. Poulbing's "The Dutchman's Fireside."
"Woolfert's Roost" and "Rip Van Winkle," from
Washington Irving's "Sketch Book."

CHAPTER XIX.

The Old Bay Settlement.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY COMPANY—THE TRIALS OF THE FIRST YEAR—
ARRIVAL OF ROGER WILLIAMS—JOHN ELIOT—PERSECUTION OF WILLIAMS—HIS SETTLEMENT
AT PROVIDENCE.



ONE of the most important colonies has not yet been spoken of, for, though it had much influence in forming the United States, it was not made until June, 1629, when the other settlements were well under way. Six vessels, with their crews, four hundred and six men, women and children, one hundred and forty head of cattle, forty goats, and a large quantity of provisions, tools, arms and building materials, left England, and arrived at Salem, Massachusetts. It will be remembered that a few rude buildings had been put here by people who, for one reason or another, saw fit to leave the colony at Plymouth. Like the Plymouth colony, this had a deep and dignified purpose, and for this reason it and

the Plymouth colony are the best remembered and the most talked of to this day. These English wanderers did not come to make money. They came to worship God as they saw fit. They were Puritans. Not like the Puritans of Plymouth, pilgrims who had journeyed from one place to another, but people who had protested against the practices of the Established Church of England and who had found it necessary to seek the new land if they wished to live the life of their liking. They had come out under the royal patent of the Massachusetts Bay Company, which had been formed at Dorchester. John Endicott was made Governor. He was a stern man, who, having made up his mind that a certain thing was best to do, never yielded or gave way. He showed no

mercy toward any one who broke his rules. He was very honorable and straightforward, but he wished everyone to be of his way of thinking. This was shown by his treatment of the Reverend Ralph Smith, one of the several ministers who came over in the fleet. It is hard to find in what small particular Mr. Smith differed from his fellows, but he had some shade of belief which did not agree with their's, and he was not suffered to stay in the colony, but was obliged to take his family and go to Nantasket, where he became so poor and underwent such hardships that the Plymouth people took pity on him and invited him to their settlement. Before the colony had been established six weeks, a day of fasting and prayer was held. One of the ministers who had come over to aid as counsel to Endicott was chosen pastor, and another teacher. A delegation was invited from Plymouth to witness the ceremony of establishing the government of the colony. The very life and conversation of men was to be subject to the rules laid down. The book of common prayer, belonging to the Church of England, was discarded, and a covenant was set up according to directions found in the New Testament.

It was hard to get all of the ministers who came over as counsel, to agree. One of them went back to England, as he could not approve of the methods of the Reformed Church. Two of his followers, John and Samuel Brown, men of a good deal of importance, would have nothing to do with the new church, but called about them all who still had sympathy with the Church of England, and held separate meetings, worshipping after the Episcopalian method. Of course, Endicott would have none of this. He summoned the Browns before him. The Browns held, that if men had come to America to escape intolerance, they should not be persecuted because of their religion, but the ministers held that they had come because they wished to escape the sinful corruptions of the church, and the Browns were sent back to England. Thus the Massachusetts Bay colony showed at the first, why it was started, and how it intended to govern. It did not wish to be governed by the council in London, nor looked after by a corrupt church, and a still more corrupt court. They therefore begged for a transfer of government, and in the course of a few weeks they were allowed to become an independent colony. This showed great courage and force of character, for the protection of the King was thought by all but these men to be a great thing.

Endicott and his friends had the pluck to take matters upon their own shoulders. It was necessary now to make new appointments, and

John Winthrop was elected Governor, with six men as council. John Winthrop was a lawyer of good birth, with quite a fortune for that day. He had a gentle nature and great tenderness of heart, though he did not lack in firmness. He was in England at the time of his election, but sailed immediately for Salem. He found the colony had suffered from the experiences which met most settlers during their first winter in America. Eighty of them had died, and they had many tales of woe to tell. Within a short time one thousand persons followed Winthrop to Salem. Settlements were made at many places along the coast, and quite a large one at Charlestown. Winthrop thought it best to strengthen his hold on the possessions of the colony by settling all along the coast. Some of them went up the Charles, and the beginnings of Dorchester, Medford, Watertown, Cambridge, Roxbury, Lynn and Charlestown were made. Boston Common was settled on because of the excellent spring of water there, and Ann Pollard, a merry young girl, was the first person, according to tradition, to leap ashore where Boston now stands.

There was a great deal of sickness in all of these settlements—partly from want of proper shelter, partly from the malaria, which always comes with the clearing of ground, and more than all, from the want of a variety of wholesome food. In Salem, some had reached such a bad condition that a day of fasting and prayer was ordered. Their prayers seemed to meet with prompt answer, for Captain William Pierce, who had made so many journeys over the Atlantic, appeared at the right moment with a large supply of provisions. On that ship was a man named Roger Williams. Williams was a young man about thirty years of age. On all subjects he was thoroughly radical. The condition of his mind then was like that of most Americans now. He believed that every man had a right to do a thing in his own way. He had no respect for anything simply because it was established and approved of by the majority. He must have been an attractive young fellow, with a good deal of personal magnetism. Governor Winthrop liked him very well, but he shocked the Governor by his out-spoken ways. He was invited to act as teacher of the Boston church, but upon examination it was found that he did not agree with their religious beliefs. That ended it, of course. He would not even join the church, because the members would not openly express their repentance for ever having communed with the Church of England. He held, too, that the magistrate had no right to punish a breach of the Sabbath, and that civil government and religious government should not be confounded.

His eloquence was attractive, and he was chosen minister of the Boston church, in spite of these heresies. Endicott, down at Salem, heard of this, and gave them no peace until he was driven from the church and had taken refuge at Plymouth. Governor Bradford had no fault to find with him, and he did much active work in the course of the next year.

Little by little the Massachusetts Bay colony grew into a commonwealth. It is true that it had enemies. There was one gay Sir Christopher Gardiner, who laid conspiracies against Winthrop, but he was finally arrested and sent back to England. Morton, of Merrimont, had never forgotten the time when Endicott had grimly marched over and pulled down his May-pole, around which he and his hard-drinking friends were dancing with a company of Indian girls. This was a little colony called Merrimont, of which Morton was the leading spirit. Captain Standish had been obliged to take this man prisoner for his disorderly conduct, and to send him over to England in the custody of John Oldham, who had worked himself into favor with the Puritans again. Sir Ferdinando Gorges also quarreled with the Massachusetts Bay Company about patents, and the Browns were still sulky, but none of these did the colony any great harm. The ministers largely controlled matters, and to be a good citizen, according to the status of the colony, was also to be religious.

One of these reverend gentlemen, John Eliot, of Roxbury, was renowned for his saintliness of character, and the work he did among Indians. For years he studied the Indian dialects, and was finally able to preach to them in their own tongue. He made an entire translation of the Bible into the Indian tongue, one of the most important philological works ever published in the United States. Copies of it are still extant, and sell at fabulous prices to collectors of Americana. He converted a whole tribe of Indians, who were known afterward as the praying Indians, and for whom the rest of the savages had a great contempt. Eliot's work was very difficult. The Indian was strangely lacking in moral sense, and it was necessary to teach him many things, which an European would know by instinct, about matters of right and wrong. Even the colonists seem not to have thought very well of the praying Indians. They preferred to have the native left in his savage state.

Another minister of especial note was John Cotton, a man of such winning and triumphant eloquence that he influenced all who came near him. After a time Roger Williams came back to Salem, and immediately got into trouble. Governor Bradford, his friend, was

bound to admit that Roger had some very strange ways of thinking and acting, and he warned the church at Salem against him. But the young man was so attractive that he overcame prejudices of this sort, and the Salem brethren took him into the church, where he began prophecying. His prophecies were not liked by the Salem people, and they arrested him for a treatise which he had written while in Plymouth, relating to the Indian title to the country, for he did not believe in the expulsion of the Indians. Nothing could be proved to his harm, however, on that charge. But Mr. Williams could not keep quiet. He certainly had very peculiar ideas. He convinced all of the women that it was immodest for them to go out of their houses unless they were veiled. Very naturally this was approved of neither by young men nor old men, and Mr. Cotton, the melting preacher, was called upon to persuade the wives and virgins that it was not necessary for them to hide their fair faces. Mr. Cotton went further, and repeated his sermon in the Boston lecture course, where Endicott fiercely got up and quarreled with him on the subject, and the debate got so hot that the Governor had to put a stop to it. Endicott was a fervid follower of Williams by this time. He went around looking everywhere for signs of anti-Christ, and actually cut St. George's cross out of the flag of England one time when he found it in Salem streets. The English soldiers very naturally refused to march after a flag which had been shorn of its sign of victory, and Endicott's rash act made such a disturbance among the soldiers that he was dismissed from the council, and it was some time before he was readmitted.

Williams and his friends asked the council for a grant of land at Marblehead, but it was not granted them. It was the first time that a church had been refused land to build on, and, of course, it only strengthened Roger Williams' following. Endicott's protest was so wild that he was imprisoned until he was ready to apologize. Williams was accused of unheard-of heresies. He held that the State had no right to meddle with a man's conscience or religious opinions. He was right, but he was also disagreeable. He would not bend to the advice of the court, nor take the warnings of the other ministers, and he was finally banished, though he was allowed to remain in town until spring. There was an attempt to put him on board a ship and send him to England, but he escaped and fled to the woods. There he lived, on the best of terms with the Indians, for whom he had a great respect and affection. His dealings with them were upon a basis of equality. Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, gave Williams a large tract of

land, but the generous minister kept little for himself, and he gave away his lands to all that he thought in want. The place where he lived he called Providence, in his gratitude to God for having escaped from his enemies.

Many persons persecuted for their religious beliefs in the different colonies came to live with him. Among these was Ann Hutchinson, a woman with a high sense of humor and of independence, who had mimicked some of the dry old preachers in Boston, and had drawn about her a number of people fond of a more simple and straight forward doctrine. Ann Hutchinson, although she is almost forgotten, was one of the most remarkable women of the early history of this country. The new colony, after much trouble, obtained a charter under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. Never was there a more radical man than Roger Williams. The laws of his colony were based upon a plan of perfect religious toleration. He held that the most Paganish, Jewish, Turkish or anti-Christian conscience should be protected in his colony. Such a thing was unheard of. It was new to the world. Thus was Rhode Island settled.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Arnold's "Rhode Island."

FICTION—Miss Sedgwick's "Hope Leslie."

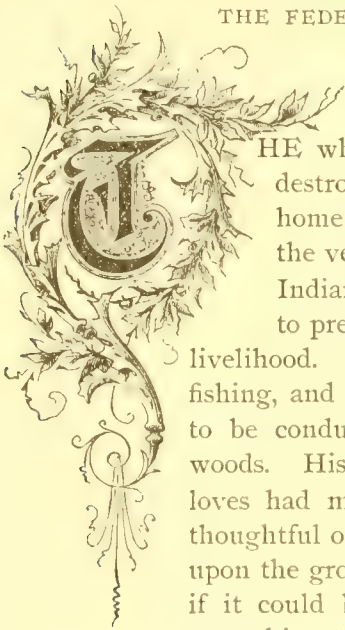
Holland's "Bay Path."

Longfellow's "Rhyme of Sir Christopher."

CHAPTER XX.

The Ravages of Civilization.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN—THE DESTRUCTION OF THE BLOCK ISLAND
INDIANS—THE EXTINCTION OF THE PEQUOT TRIBE—
THE FEDERATION OF THE ENGLISH
COLONIES



HE white man's first business in America was to destroy the forests. Before he could build him a home he laid his axe at the foot of a tree. From the very first, he showed how he differed from the Indian, for the Indian lived in the forest; he wished to preserve it. The game in it was his means of livelihood. The wilder the streams, the better the fishing, and the only sort of warfare which he knew had to be conducted in the solitudes and fastnesses of the woods. His superstition had made it holy to him; his loves had made it dear, and from the first, the most thoughtful of the Indians had looked with great dread upon the growing power of the white man, and wondered if it could be possible for two nations so different in everything to live together in harmony. In the beginning, although the Indian was subtle in his dealings with his enemies, he was true to his friends. He had the naturalness of a child. When he gave his word, he could be trusted. He could endure pain with a bravery only equaled by the old heroes of Sparta. In him was a love of liberty that centuries of injustice has not been able to crush, and in certain directions his mind was trained in a manner unequalled by any except the mystics of Asiatic India. He knew every sign of the forest, and the most timid animal had no match for his cunning. The solitudes were an open book to him, and the best power of his intellect was spent in evolving a philosophy from its pages. He held mental and moral qualities in high esteem, and was willing himself to do but little manual labor, leaving that for the women of his tribe. Few nations in

the world have been found so swift of foot, so keen of sight and hearing, and so clever in detecting signs which no others might see. He was not without imagination or poetry, and for him, mountains, woods, lakes and streams were filled with spirits, good and bad, who watched over his destiny, or thwarted him in his ambitions. His life satisfied him, and so did his religion. It is not strange that the religion which the Englishmen offered him in place of his own was received with coldness.

The lives of the Puritans did not set a good example to the Indians. Crimes of a certain nature were very frequent among them, and it is certain that the Christians did not teach the Indians honesty. Too much theology and too little religion naturally confused the Indian as to what the Christian faith really was, so when they saw themselves being driven inland, mile after mile, they knew that it meant the extinction of their race. They were forced to leave behind them the places which they cherished with a love almost fierce in its nature. The places where their dead lay buried, the monuments to which, day by day, the children added a stone, must all be left behind. The sea was no longer theirs. They saw that in a short time there would be nothing for them to do but march toward the setting sun, leaving the beloved sea behind them.

This brooding hatred and distrust had its results. Captain Oldham had once more been taken into the favor of the Puritans, and when his boat was found drifting at sea, with a band of Indians upon it and his dead body on the deck, the colonists made up their minds to revenge his death; so in August of 1636, nearly one hundred men, in five small vessels, sailed from Boston to Block Island—for it was the Block Island Indians who had murdered Oldham. In command of this expedition was John Endicott, the sternest Puritan of them all. To land at Block Island, even in fair weather, was a difficult thing. To do it in a heavy wind was a most dangerous one. Any seaman would shrink from it, but the Boston force did it in the midst of a shower of arrows from the Indians. The invaders stayed upon the island two days, laying waste the two hundred acres of land under cultivation, burning the maize already harvested, as well as the wigwams and all their furniture. Not one of the Englishmen was harmed, but such of the Indians as were left alive remained upon the island without shelter or food, or canoes in which to escape. Most of them perished wretchedly, but a few must have lived, because much later than this, the Indians of Block Island are referred to.

Endicott took his men to the mainland near the mouth of what is

now the Thames river. Proud of his victory over the Block Islanders, he wished to take revenge upon the Pequot Indians, for their murder of a Puritan named Stone. He asked that the Pequot chief be brought to him, but the chief would not come, and the Englishmen and Indians had some engagements, in which the Indians suffered severely. After burning the Indian villages, Endicott's men coasted on up to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where there was a fort under the command of Captain Lion Gardiner, who was much distressed when Endicott stopped there. He had tried to keep on friendly terms with the Indians, and was much more afraid of starving to death than of being killed. Events show that Gardiner was right. The Indians were greatly irritated and were determined to be revenged for the injustice done to the Block Islanders. They came upon the English at all sorts of unexpected places, and destroyed a large part of the corn which Gardiner had planted. It was hardly safe for the men to venture without the fort, for the Indians lurked about it constantly—never seen, but frequently felt. Cattle were killed or stolen, and the settlements near were greatly harassed. Men went to church carrying their weapons in their hands, and were afraid to labor in their own yards. Both men and women were fallen upon in the fields and murdered or carried into captivity. Had the Indians wished, they might have exterminated the English.

Roger Williams saw the great danger. No man knew better than he the strength and qualities of the people on both sides. His diplomacy alone prevented a concerted attack by all the Indian tribes upon the colonies. Governor Winthrop and the rest were very glad to receive help from the man whom they had driven out in the dead of night and of winter because of his daring to differ from them. The efforts of Williams secured the friendship of the Narragansetts, who had long been enemies of the Pequots. The Massachusetts General Court decided at their May meeting to go to the help of the people in the Connecticut valley. They knew that the red cloud of war might sweep on to Massachusetts. Feeling that it was a common peril, the Bay people called upon Plymouth for help, but Plymouth held back. She had certain quarrels to pick with the Bay government. Both Massachusetts and Plymouth could take time to think. They were not—like the dwellers on the plantation of the Connecticut—being murdered in their beds, by their well-sweeps, and in their doorways.

But in May, a force of ninety men, under the charge of Captain John Mason, sailed from Hartford for Fort Saybrook. Here they were joined by the friendly Uncas, the great Mohegan chief, with a body of

Indians. Mason decided to attack the Pequots in the rear, although this was in disobedience to the orders of the general court. In pursuance of this plan, Mason left the fort and bore away for Narragansett Bay. The Pequots thought he was retreating, and late into the night they sang and boasted that their superior numbers had put the woman-hearted Englishmen to flight. But Mason landed near the entrance of Narragansett Bay, and marched eighteen or twenty miles distant on the Pequot frontier. The Narragansetts had a fort here, and Mason was anxious to make sure of their friendship. On the 25th of May the little army made the tedious march through the woods, with little to eat and less to drink, and encamped at night at the head of the Mystic river. Near that was the principal Pequot fort, crowded with men, women and children.

Very early in the morning, when the east was first streaked with light, Mason awoke his men. Uncas, the Mohegan chief, guided them near to the palisaded village. There seemed to have been no sentinels about the fort, and, but for the barking of a dog, the Indians would not have known that the Englishmen were upon them. A part of Mason's men rushed in on one side, and the rest upon the other. The Indians could do but little, and, mad with terror, tried to rush for the woods, but there was little chance of escape. Mason was not satisfied with the rapid work that guns and swords were doing, but cried, "we must burn them," and snatching a brand from one of the smouldering fires at which the evening meal had been prepared, thrust it among the dead leaves that carpeted the wigwams. Some of the Indians, rather than die at the hands of their hated enemies, ran with a pride past all taming into the flames and perished there. Others, seeing that their wives and children could not escape, threw themselves upon the swords of the Englishmen, who stood in an unbroken circle around the village, and behind whom was a yet sterner and more cruel company of their own countrymen.

It was hardly an hour from the time of the attack when the burned and bleeding bodies of nearly seven hundred Indians lay among their smoking wigwams. Only two of the English were killed.

There was another Indian village belonging to the Pequots not many miles distant, and in this there were still three hundred and fifty warriors. A handful of men had escaped the morning massacre, and flying to this village, told their countrymen the particulars of the morning slaughter. Mad with sorrow and anger, these were soon upon the trail of the English. Mason's men, exhausted with the terrible fight, a third of them wounded, and all suffering from hunger and the intense thirst which

follows such excitement, were in a very weakened condition, but they were able to repulse the Indians, and in the course of the day were met by a reinforcement of forty men from Boston.

The Pequots were now the enemies of all the other tribes of Massachusetts and Connecticut, for the Narragansetts and Mohegans allied themselves with the stronger side. This the Indians always did in warfare. So the Pequots were hunted mercilessly through the forests. They hid themselves in rocks, and caves, and bushes, and wherever they were found they were killed. The worst of it was that they were seldom killed immediately, but were tortured in the most terrible ways. Twenty young Englishmen sometimes pulled the legs and arms of an Indian from their sockets by sheer brutal force. Few of the women and children were killed, but were sent to the West India Islands as slaves. In July, the remnant of this tribe were ensnared in a swamp. Here they fought like wild beasts, with the ferocity of despair, but most of them were killed or taken prisoners, and such as were left met with a fate still more hateful to them. They were permitted to become either Mohegans or Narragansetts, and lost their individuality as a tribe. They were a brave race of warriors, and their pitiable downfall and overthrow cannot but touch the heart of any who admire courage and patriotism. A few who fled to the Mohawks were treacherously killed, and their scalps sent to Governor Winthrop as a sign of Mohawk friendship.

The Pequot war lasted five months. This great tribe, numbering over one thousand warriors, was extinguished by a force of two hundred Englishmen. It is true that the Narragansetts and Mohegans had helped them, but they were never to be relied upon. There is no more striking proof of the superiority of civilized warfare.

After this, for many years, the Indians of Connecticut were subdued. They were sometimes annoying, but seldom dangerous, and while the Dutch were suffering all the terrors of Indian conflict, the New England settlements remained for forty years in a state of comparative peace.

The heavy expense of this war had fallen upon the people of the Connecticut valley, and the colony was badly in debt. Its strongest and best men had been called to military service, leaving the women to look after the farms, and it seemed as if there might be a great lack of food for the coming winter. Active measures had to be taken to prevent this, and every kernel of corn was carefully gathered and preserved. Companies of home soldiers were well drilled at every

settlement, and the young colony had begun to feel its strength and firmness so well now that within eighteen months from this time the new government adopted a constitution. This constitution was very simple and eloquent, and said that the people of Connecticut recognized no allegiance to any other power, not even that of England. It constituted a popular government, in which all the freemen were equal before the law, promising to maintain the liberty of the gospel of our Lord Jesus.

For two hundred years this was the basis of the law of Connecticut. John Haynes and Edward Hopkins served as Governors for many years, sometimes one and sometimes the other holding the position. The life of every man and woman in the community was carefully watched by the magistrate, and no license of speech was permitted. No one was allowed to say what he or she thought about the minister's last sermon, or allowed to laugh at the peculiarities of his or her neighbors. From the very strictness of the laws, now and then some man or woman broke out into a strange frenzy of viciousness or crime, which would be seldom heard of in a less severe community, where light amusements and diversions are allowed. The stern monotony of life seemed to make the heart prey upon itself, and the people broke into vice to supply the necessary excitement. In 1643 a confederation was made, embracing Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven. Their distance from each other was so great that it was not practical to have a single government for them all, but they had desired to link the English plantations together, that they might defend themselves against the people of several nations and strange languages who were settling around them. England, occupied with her own troubles, could pay little attention to her colonies, so they looked for no further help from the home country. The main object of this confederation was an offensive and defensive league in case of war. In all other things each colony held the right of self-government. This was the germ of the Federal Union, which has grown great among the nations as the United States of America.

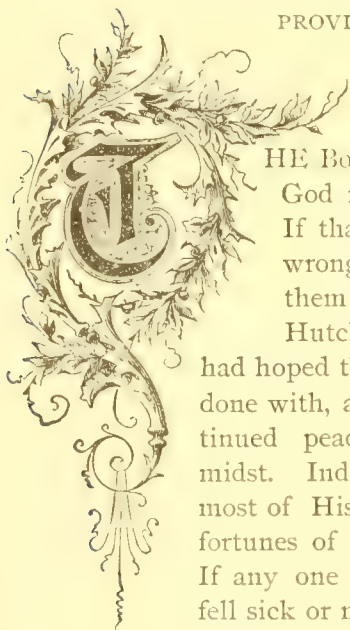
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HUTTON'S *Puritanism and Indian Wars in New England*
BURNETT'S *Winthrop's Life and Letters*
LATHROP'S *E. M. Child's "First Settlers of New England."*

CHAPTER XXI.

The Pride of the Righteous.

THE RELIGIOUS LAW OF BOSTON—GORTON AND HIS BELIEFS—THE SETTLEMENT AT SHEWANET—PERSECUTION OF THE GORTON-ITES—PERSECUTION OF THE BAPTISTS—THE OBTAINING OF A ROYAL CHARTER FOR RHODE ISLAND AND THE PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.



THE Boston people had come to America to worship God in what they believed to be the right way. If that was the right way, all other ways must be wrong, and they allowed no one to differ from them in the smallest shade of belief. When Ann Hutchinson was driven from among them, they had hoped that all these "notable errors" of belief were done with, and that God would reward them with continued peace for driving such heresies from their midst. Indeed, they believed that God devoted the most of His time and attention to them, and the misfortunes of all others were counted to their own glory. If any one who had opposed them or criticised them fell sick or met with misfortune, they believed it another sign of the Lord's care. To be a citizen, it was first necessary to be a member of the church, and the court of justice was little more than a religious examining seat. If any one made remarks upon the preached word or showed any contempt of the preacher, he was called a "Wanton Gospeller," and stood for two hours openly upon a block four feet high, on a lecture day, with a paper on his breast with "A Wanton Gospeller" written thereon in capital letters. It was this firm belief in their own righteousness which caused the people of Boston to persecute so many people at different times on account of religious differences.

One of the men who suffered most from this unforgiving spirit was

Samuel Gorton. No one of a later day was able to tell just what this man believed, but it was certain that he believed something different from the people around him. He was one of the early settlers of Portsmouth, Rhode Island, and was given to advertising new theories, and to standing by them in a manner not so wise as it was determined. He visited both Boston and Plymouth, and while at Plymouth got into his first fight with the authorities because he defended a servant of his own family who so far forgot herself as to smile in church, and who was therefore declared to be a heretic. At length he was driven out, and, very naturally, went to Acquidneck, Roger Williams' settlement, where everyone was welcomed. In the year 1641, Gorton bought land at Pawtuxet. This was where Cranston now stands, and was within the bounds of Providence. Of the people of Providence, Governor Winthrop had a very poor opinion. He said that some of them were against the baptizing of infants, and that others denied all magistracy, and claimed that Gorton was their captain.

Roger Williams managed to keep them (the Gortonites) peaceful for a time, but at length arguments waxed so hot between them and their neighbors that blows followed. A man named Arnold, and a dozen others, appealed to Massachusetts for aid against Gorton and his friends, who seemed to have had certain socialistic ideas in regard to land, very offensive to people used to complicated government. Boston, however, refused to send help to the people of Pawtuxet, since they did not live under the government of Massachusetts, as both parties had found Boston so little to their liking that they had run away from it. They were not willing to submit themselves to its government again even to win their point, but at length the quarrels grew so hot that they sent again to Boston for help. This appeal was sent out by four men, of whom Arnold was one. These four men submitted themselves to Boston, with their lands and possessions, and as these were very desirable, Boston consented to give them help. Having got the lands in this cheap way, the Massachusetts magistrates gave the four men leave, if they had a just title to anything which Gorton and his friends possessed, to proceed against them in court. This they did immediately, the case being, of course, decided in favor of Arnold and his friends. By this very simple method, Massachusetts gained possession of that beautiful garden of the Narragansett.

There were about twelve men of the Gorton party, and these immediately deserted their homes and gardens in Pawtuxet, and moved away in search of a new place. They settled about twelve miles south

of Providence, calling their settlement Shewanet. Before going there Samuel Gorton sent a remarkable letter to the Boston magistrates, which set forth all of their religious beliefs. The magistrates seemed to know what it meant, for they found twenty-six blasphemous particulars in it, though no one since has been able to tell what Gorton's theology was. The land at Shewanet was bought of Miantonomo, the young sachem of the Narragansetts, and it was so far from the settlement of any one else that they hoped they might be left in peace, but Arnold was not the man to let a personal matter drop so quietly, and he induced the Indians to say that they had been forced to sign the deed giving title to Gorton's people, and two small sachems, who were hired to tell this lie, were received as subjects of the Massachusetts government. That these two new subjects might be properly protected, the twelve men of Shewanet were asked to appear before the general court at Boston. This, Gorton and his friends refused to do, and the colony sent back a threat which showed the Shewanet people that they were in danger of their lives. A band of soldiers and Indians charged upon the village, and the troops did not disdain to level their muskets upon women and children. Some of the people ran for the woods; others waded out into the river to reach a boat, which some Providence people, in pity for their condition, had brought to the place. Though none of them died at the time, a number died afterward from the exposure and suffering. The men had not supposed that the Boston troops would trouble their wives and children, and had fortified themselves in one of their log houses. They stood the siege for several days, but without firing a shot—for they did not believe in the shedding of blood. Their houses were pillaged, their cattle driven off, and their wives and children, who lurked in the woods near by, were fired at.

At length the Gorton men promised they would yield, and go to Massachusetts to be tried, if they could go as free men, and not as prisoners. This the soldiers promised, but as soon as they got in the house, the arms were taken from the Gorton men and they were marched off as captives. In Boston, they were received as if they were the most dangerous and dreadful men.

The clergymen called the people together in the open streets to thank God for his goodness in giving them the victory, and Governor Winthrop went out and publicly blessed the soldiers. The trial lasted four days, and the elders declared that the offense of these men was deserving of death, but the large body of the delegates would not permit this sentence. The men were imprisoned. The winter they

spent in jail did not, however, keep their doctrines from spreading, and and at length Governor Winthrop thought it best to set them free. Within three days, however, they were told to depart out of the town before noon. They had nothing to do once more but to take to the wilderness, where they lived among the Indians. In time they succeeded in getting from King Charles a document which let them pass safely through any town of New England, and which gave them an order for the grounds at Shewanet, from which they had been evicted by Arnold and his friends. Of course, they had much trouble in carrying this into effect. The Earl of Warwick was the president of the Board of Commissioners who had seen to the rights of the Gorton party, and in gratitude Shewanet was named Warwick. Warwick became a part of Providence plantation under a charter got by Roger Williams, in 1644. This charter Williams carried to Boston and made them recognize its power, but they treated him with no more friendliness there than they did before. He did not need to mind, however, when he was received at home with so much love. When the people heard that he was returning, the river was crowded with canoes, and the people gathered upon the banks to welcome him. This charter gave to the people of the Providence plantations full power and authority to govern and rule themselves, and all others who came within their boundaries. It was the first colonial charter of the sort that had ever been given. When the first general assembly met under it at Portsmouth, they declared that the form of government established in Providence plantations was democratic; that is to say, a government held by the free and voluntary consent of all, or the greater part of the free inhabitants. It granted to every one absolute freedom of conscience.

By this time political parties had begun to be felt in America. Men who had been Whigs and Tories in England, were Whigs and Tories here, and this declaration of democracy greatly offended the royalist party, who thought it an insult to the King. Some of these asked to be united to Massachusetts, but were refused unless they would allow that their land came within the Plymouth patent. This, of course, they would not do. It came about in time that a royal charter was obtained from Charles II, after he was restored to the throne, which united Rhode Island and the Providence plantations. The events which led to this are interesting, and form another chapter in that marvelous book of religious persecutions which go to make up so great a part in colonial history.

The Reverend John Clark was one of the most popular citizens of

Rhode Island, and the pastor of the Baptist Church at Newport. The Baptists were one of the exiled sects who had come within the protection of Roger Williams' strong arm. Holmes and Crandall were also Baptist ministers, and these three went together to Lynn, in Massachusetts, to visit one of their faith who was old, sick and blind, and had desired to see them. While they were visiting this old man they held divine service in his house, and were arrested by constables for daring to preach the despised religion on Massachusetts territory. They were sent to the Boston jail until the court set, and, after ten days' confinement there, were found guilty of being Baptists. They were sentenced either to be whipped or pay a fine, and when they asked what they had been guilty of, Endicott replied that they denied infant baptism, and John Wilson, the pastor of the Boston Church, so lost his temper that he struck Holmes. Friends paid the fine of Clark and Crandall, but Holmes' conscience would not allow him to be released that he might escape a painful punishment, so he was led out of the prison into the presence of the people to be whipped. The coat which he had put on with much neatness, that he might look worthy of the Lord, was taken from him, and he was given thirty strokes with a three-corded whip. When the sheriff had finished, and even the hardest-hearted of the bystanders turned sick at the sight of his bleeding back, he turned smilingly to the magistrates by, and said: "You have struck me as with roses."

The political quarrels of the different towns of the Providence plantations had weakened their government, but the manner in which these Providence preachers had been treated determined them to see to their rights in the future, that they might be able to retaliate with proper force should Massachusetts interfere in this way again. Clark was sent to England to obtain the royal charter, which he did after working and waiting for several years.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Gorton."

FICTION—J. Bayvard's "Triscilla."

Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter."

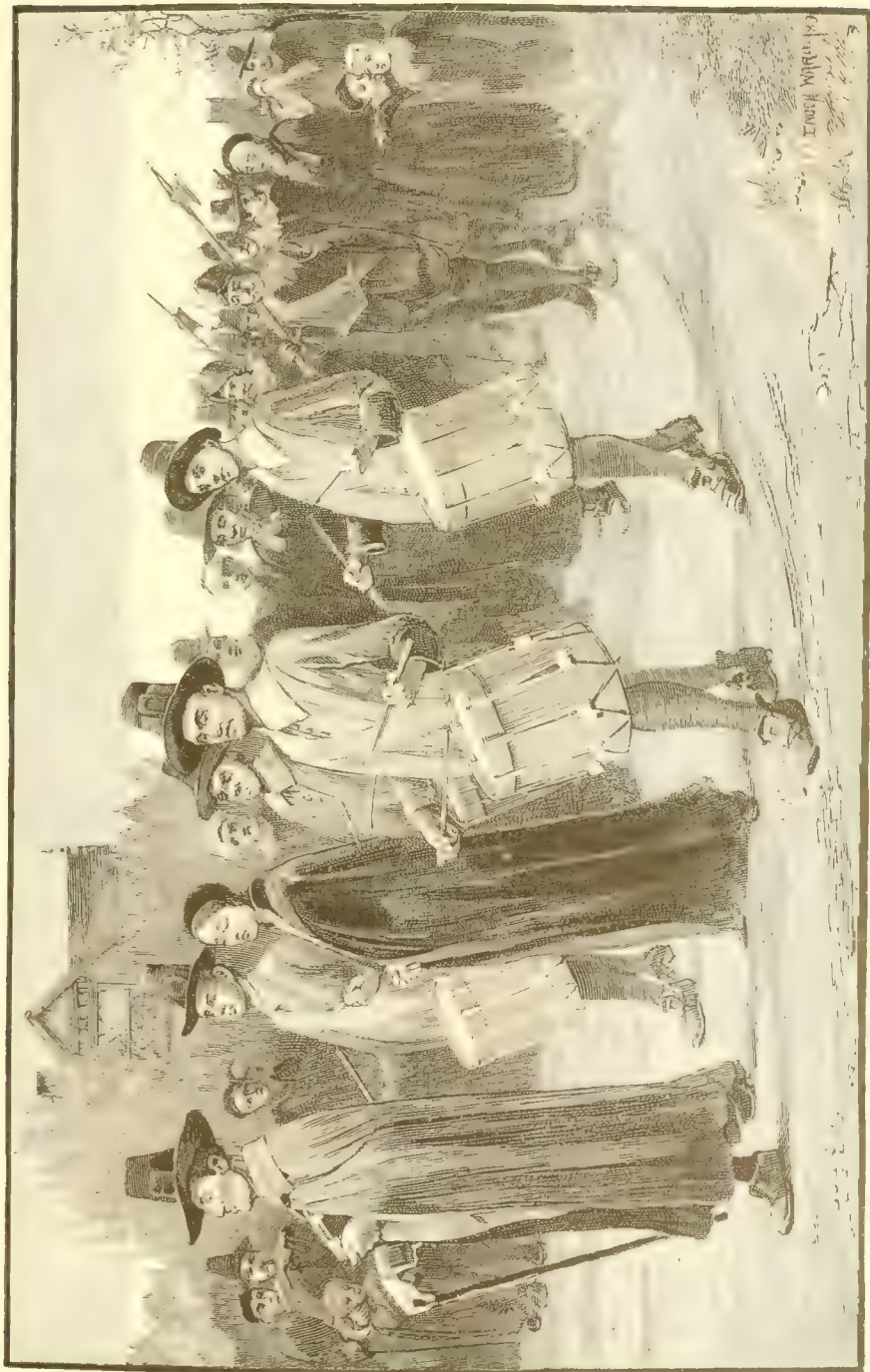
CHAPTER XXII.

Through Pain to Peace.

THE QUAKERS—THEIR PERSECUTION—GEORGE FOX AND HIS FRIENDS
—MARY FISHER AND ANN AUSTIN—THE
QUAKER CHILDREN.



THE Boston church seemed to feel for a while that it had done its duty, but after a time some strange people were found in their midst, who were called Quakers. Once more the church was up in arms. It wanted to know who the Quakers were. They found that they were the followers of George Fox, a man who mingled much poetic mysticism with the stern and self-denying religion. It is said that he had the power of perceiving evil thoughts in others, and could not pass by a wicked person without stopping to point out the path of reform. His own life was beautifully pure and sanctified, and it was certain that he could read minds and influence people as it is given to only a few to do in this world. The doctrine of the Friends, as the followers of Fox were called, was to be at peace with all the world, to put aside vanities and show, to trust to the guidance of the inner spirit, and to put scholarship and holiness above gain in all cases. They used no titles, and would not permit steeples on their churches, and dressed in plain garb of uniform color, in protest against all the gay ruffling and slashing which they saw in the streets of England, where Fox was born. Plainness of speech, as well as plainness of dress, was held to. Fox dressed in a suit of leather, but it may not have been so much to be different from other men as for the convenience of having one durable suit to wear upon his long journeys, and to keep out the damp and cold of the many dungeons in which he was placed. One of the things which most irritated the magistrates was the habit which the Quakers had of continually wearing their hats, believing that they should pay no more honor to one person than



MARY INTER GOING TO ENLIGHTEN.

Described in a letter to the Rev. Mr. Smith, of Andover.

another, and that it was a waste of time and sense to keep up so foolish a ceremony. The Friends insisted upon speaking in the churches, and interrupting the ministers when they overheard a remark to which they could not give their support. They believed that they had a call to bear their "message" into the very strongholds of their adversaries, and sometimes launched speeches against them so fiercely that it is little wonder that the Puritan ministers were irritated, especially as the Quakers objected to their receiving any money for their services. The fight they made against "hireling religion" was very bitter. The personal life of the Quakers was thoroughly pure. Indeed, to such a high strain did their minds grow, that it is difficult for any one in this busy and more commonplace age, to appreciate the fervor and beauty of their visions, their sacrifices, and their prophecies.

The Friends were first called Quakers by Justice Bennett, of Derby, in 1650, because the people trembled or quaked when they listened to the powerful words of Fox. Fox even had the courage when he was taken to London, in 1654, as a prisoner, and lodged in the old Mermaid Tavern, which Shakspeare and his friends made famous, to write to Cromwell, protesting against the drawing of the sword of war. The English had grown to fear the Quakers, even before they came to America.

In July, 1656, the first Quakers came to Boston. These were Mary Fisher and Ann Austin, who were imprisoned upon their arrival and sent back to the Barbadoes, from whence they had come. Mary Fisher had traveled, not alone over Europe, but in parts of Asia, preaching the word, and in the autumn of 1653, three years before her imprisonment at Boston, she had preached to the Cambridge students. Endicott was absent, when the "Swallow" arrived, with Mary Fisher and Ann Austin on board, but the deputy governor had their baggage searched, and all of their books and tracts taken, and an order was issued, which was the first act of Massachusetts against the Quakers, in which the women were called preachers of corrupt, heretical, and blasphemous doctrines. While they were at Boston they were confined in the jail, with the windows boarded up. No one was allowed to speak to them, or render them any assistance. They were stripped, and examined for signs of witchcraft, but as they fortunately had no moles or freckles upon them, they were cleared of that charge. The people were even cautioned not to feed them, but Nicolas Upshall, an old gentleman of Boston, who held very grave ideas of justice, gave the jailor money to provide for them. He was arrested and thrown in jail, and upon release, was exiled. They would not receive him at Plymouth, and he went to live

among the Indians, who had a friendly feeling for any who, like themselves, had the Puritan religion so obnoxiously thrust at them. The *Swallow* was barely out of sight, when a vessel from London arrived with eight Friends on board. Their boxes and chests were immediately searched for "hellish pamphlets," and, after many questions, they were sent to jail. They were ordered to return on the vessel which brought them, and when the master refused to take them at his own expense, he was imprisoned until he yielded. The people became dissatisfied with measures which could not be sustained by the laws of the colony, and on October 14th a law was passed which made every ship-master bringing Quakers to New England subject to a payment of one hundred pounds, or imprisonment until the money was forthcoming. Any Quakers who arrived should be put in the house of correction, severely whipped, kept at constant labor, and forbidden to talk with any one. There were also fines for bringing or sending Quaker tracts to the colony. Four of the federate colonies adopted this, but Rhode Island refused, and very cleverly held that the Quakers would not care to come to Rhode Island if they were not persecuted for doing so. Not that the Quakers had any desire to become notorious, or wished a vain martyrdom, but they naturally insisted upon trying to reform and soften the people who most reviled them.

It is not necessary to repeat the particulars of each of their abuses of these gentle Friends. They were all much alike in cruelty, and it became common to whip them from town to town and to keep them for many days in jail without food, with not even a bunch of straw to lie upon. The instrument used for whipping them was a three-corded knout, with knots tied in it. But the more the people suffered, the more converts they made. No one was allowed to entertain a Quaker without punishment, but for all of that, plenty of kind hearts were found who were willing to shelter them. Women were stripped naked and whipped, and one of them was whipped with a little babe only a few days old clinging to her breast.

Even the little children did not escape. Lawrence and Cassandra Southwick were banished from the colony under penalty of death, leaving behind them their poor little boy and girl in extreme poverty. They were fined for not attending regular worship, and having no money to pay the fine, were to be sold as slaves. It was hoped that they might bring ten pounds each, and so the treasury got the money which it ached for, but not a sea captain in the port of Boston would take them away, and the magistrates had no choice but to let them stay.

Another little child, Mary Wright, fourteen years of age, whose sister had been banished from Massachusetts, found her way from Long Island to Boston, that she might protest against the cruelty they were showing to these innocent people. Her words were so simple that even the hardened men about her were moved, and the secretary cried: "What! shall we be battled by such a one as this? Come, let us drink a dram."

Sweet Mary Dyer, hearing of some friends in prison, visited them, and was arrested for it and put under the same roof. She was banished, but returned to Boston to again visit the persecuted Friends, bringing with her linen to wrap the dead bodies of those who were to suffer. With her came a party of Friends, four of whom were women. They had guessed right; some were to suffer death, and Mary Dyer was one of them. The 27th of August she and two men were led to the Boston Common, with a great force of soldiers about them, and the drums beating. Mary Dyer walked as if to some great victory, with a smile upon her face. The two men were hung, and just as they had tied Mary Dyer's clothes about her feet a cry came ringing across the Common announcing a reprieve, which her young son had got for her. She was banished, but in a few months returned again to Boston. It was required of her, she said, to take her message there. Her husband wrote a letter begging that she might be spared, but Endicott would show no mercy, and the tender appeal for Friend Dyer's "most dearly beloved wife" only irritated him, so on a certain sad day, with a strong body of soldiers about her, for fear of the people who were moved to much pity in her case, she was led to the Common and hung there, for others to take example by, so her judges said.

The last man to be hung on Boston Common was William Leddra, who had dared to return after having been banished. He came into the court dragging a log behind him to which he was bound with chains, and answered all questions put to him with a fearlessness which all of his sect showed. But by this time the severity of the judges began to defeat itself. The people could not stand such cruelty, and they were frightened by the wild prophecies of Wenlock Christison. He was whipped through Boston, Roxbury and Dedham, and cast into the wilderness, but his prophecies remained behind him to frighten and subdue the people, for oddly enough many of them came true.

At length the King of England put a stop to the cruelty with which the Quakers were being treated, and the order was placed in the hands of Samuel Shattock, a Quaker, who had been banished from Boston under penalty of death. When Shattock walked before Endicott, with

his hat upon his head, he was met with the usual brutal questions, but when he showed his order, Governor Endicott, overcome with mortification, yet not forgetting his courtesy to an embassy from his sovereign, replaced the hat which he had snatched from Shattock's head and removed his own. The King ordered that all prisoners should be sent to England. This, it goes without saying, Endicott and his friends would not dare permit. They settled the question by dismissing the prisoners. However, the cruelties against the Quakers were revived later, and men and women were frequently tied to the end of a cart and whipped from town to town.

The last time a Quaker was imprisoned was at the time of Endicott's burial. An old woman, sixty-five years of age, made some remarks, true but not savory, about the dead magistrate. These persecutions lasted ten years in all, until again the King interfered, sending to Massachusetts and Connecticut orders that all persons of civil lives would fully enjoy the liberty of their conscience.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Mather's "Magnalia "

POETRY—Whittier's "Cassandra Southwick."

Longfellow's "John Endicott "

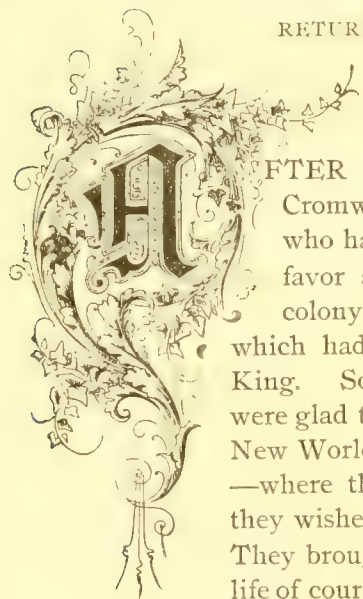


CHARLES I, OF ENGLAND (From the painting by Anton van Dyck.)

CHAPTER XXIII.

The Royalist Colony of Virginia.

GOVERNOR BERKELEY AND HIS REIGN—MORE TROUBLE WITH THE
INDIANS—THE PURITANS AGAIN VICTORIOUS—THE
RETURN OF THE STUARTS
TO POWER.



AFTER King Charles I had been beheaded, and Cromwell, the great dictator, ruled, many of those who had stood by the King, and were now in disfavor and poverty, hastened to the Virginian colony. This was the only one of all the colonies which had steadfastly believed in the cause of the King. So the disappointed royalists of England were glad to come by hundreds to the only spot in the New World in which all that they loved was respected—where they could have the church service which they wished, and where no one reviled the dead King. They brought with them their old ways. Used to the life of court and camp, they lived carelessly, spending their money without thought of its value, and caring little for the rights of those poorer or less powerful than themselves. They were a merry and elegant set, and even when their clothes were worn to rags, they were still wonderfully polite and lordly in their manners.

One of the pleasantest chronicles of colonial life has been left by one of the men who came over in the way described. This was Colonel Norwood, a young man of much bravery and originality, who was wrecked with his company on an island near Virginia. They starved there for ten days, and were taken to the mainland by a party of Indians who chanced to pass. Among the Indians they were treated with much kindness, and finally were guided from plantation to plantation through the hospitable Virginian colony until they reached the settlement. In these careless and genial old days, hospitality was not alone a matter of

impulse. There was a law ordering that any stranger coming to the house should be cared for as a guest, unless an agreement in writing was made with him before he entered. It can easily be imagined that not one person in a thousand would do such a thing, especially in an age where inhospitality was considered the worst of crimes.

After Governor Harvey had been sent back by the King to govern Virginia, the troubles between Maryland and Virginia continued to grow worse. In course of time he was succeeded by Sir Francis Wyat, and he, in time, by Sir William Berkeley, the best known of the Jamestown governors. He came to Jamestown early in 1642, amid the enthusiasm of the people. Nothing was so dear to him as his King, and he followed the royal commands in everything. Under his rule the colony prospered. But the colony took some very ill-advised measures, and in 1643 enacted laws which broke up the Puritan churches. When, a little later, there was a sudden rising among the Indians, and a great number of Virginian planters were killed, the Puritans saw in it a meting out of God's justice to their persecutors. The Indians were treated as enemies, and it was declared that there should be no peace between them and the whites, and that a savage might be shot whenever he was seen. The Indians planned a cunning revenge, and killed from three hundred to five hundred of the English in return for this cruel law. But for some reason which has never been explained, they drew off and retreated to the woods, instead of continuing their slaughter, as they might easily have done. This was twenty-two years after the Virginian massacre, which had so nearly extinguished the colony. But now the province was of more than thirty years' standing, with good rulers and well-organized means of defence. All the forces of the colony were turned upon the Indians, and they were driven from one point to another, many of them taken prisoners, and, finally, the great chief who ruled over all of those lands where Powhatan had once been King, was taken and brought to Jamestown. This chief's name was Opechancanough. He was nearly one hundred years old, and so crippled with paralysis that he could not even open his eyes to look at his victors, who crowded about him as he lay dying in prison. It had been the intention to take him to England to show the people there a man who had kept the colony in a state of terror for years, but he was cruelly shot by one of his guards, and so had the good fortune to die in his own country which he had loved deeply and fought for with extraordinary fierceness.

During all the time of the great Revolution in England, the Virginian



OLIVER CROMWELL.

Cut on wood in imitation of the mezzotint of T. Faber, 1659. Engraving by P. Leys, 1794.

colony was in a state of unusual prosperity. Tobacco was the chief export, and even in the midst of the war, men would not stop using tobacco; therefore, their income did not decrease. In England, there was no time to attend to colonial affairs, and Virginia grew stronger under home rule. There was plenty of skilled labor among the fifteen thousand Englishmen who made up the colony, and smelting works, hemp and flax culture, vine-raising, indigo-making, and the manufacture of bricks succeeded well. The plantations grew, and in the midst of them were built those hospitable, porch-surrounded mansions which we still associate with the colonial period. More than thirty vessels brought out English goods every year, and took back cargoes of native productions.

Virginia had had the courage to openly denounce the execution of King Charles I, and had made a law calling it treason for any one to speak against him, so in 1650 the Parliament in England said that there should be no more trade with these uncompliant colonies, and sent over commissioners to force allegiance to Cromwell. With these commissioners came a regiment of soldiers and one hundred and fifty prisoners of war, who were to be sold as servants in Virginia. They demanded the surrender of Jamestown, and it was found necessary to yield. The Puritans were more than a religious party at this time. They were a political party as well, both in England and America, and Cromwell's men who came to demand the surrender of the Virginian colonies represented the Puritans. The terms of the surrender were not unkind, and even gave consent that the common prayer book should be used for the next year. Consideration was shown Governor Berkeley and his officers, and they were given liberty to sell their estates, if they wished to leave the colony. A government was established, with William Clayborne and Richard Bennett at its head. They were men highly esteemed and very generous in their government. Clayborne, although he had had such quarrelsome experiences with Maryland, was a very sensible and clever gentleman, from one of the best families of England, and was one of the strongest upholders of the Protestant faith. Though he did not forget his old troubles with Maryland, and the serious grievance he had against Lord Baltimore, he was, nevertheless, considerate at first in his government of Maryland, now that it was partly in his power.

Governor Stone, now at the head of the Maryland colony, was the second Governor since Leonard Calvert. The few months that followed the triumph of Cromwell were very bewildering to Governor Stone.

Now he would have a message from the Long Parliament, saying that he must proclaim to his subjects the supremacy of the Dictator and give an oath of fidelity, and again would receive indignant letters from Lord Baltimore, saying that he owed allegiance to him. Several times he issued different manifestoes, until finally Bennett and Clayborne themselves made a proclamation saying that Maryland belonged to the Protector, and removing the Catholic officers, they appointed a Board of Puritan Commissioners.

So at length the Puritans, who had been so much abused, began to be the stronger party in both countries. They were men of determined characters, who believed that God led them in everything. Lord Baltimore protested against the easy way in which Stone had yielded to the Puritan will, and under his influence Stone gathered his forces and seized the State archives and all the arms and ammunition he could find. Then he took his force of two hundred men and embarked on twelve boats, which went up Chesapeake Bay to Severn, opposite Kent Island, where the Puritans were settled. Stone intended to enforce their submission. In the Severn was a large ship, the *Golden Lion*, which sent out shots among the advancing fleet as they came into the harbor, and Stone hurried his vessels farther up the creek and took his men on shore, with a good deal of noise and bluster. But while they were gone, the Puritans took possession of all their vessels, sending a detachment by land to force the Catholics up the peninsula. While they were retreating, they suddenly met one hundred and twenty men who had come out from Providence to meet them. With enemies on both sides it was necessary to fight, so crying, "Hey for St. Marys," they rushed at the enemy. But the Puritans cried, "In the name of God, fall on; God is our strength," and elated with that stern frenzy which carried them through such awful trials, they killed and wounded fifty of the Catholics and took all but four or five prisoners. Only four of the Puritans died in consequence of the engagement. Four of the leaders were killed, and Governor Stone was sentenced to death, but some of the Puritans begged for his life and he was spared.

And now a letter came from the Protector, forbidding the Virginians to have anything to do with the affairs of Maryland until the boundaries could be settled. Lord Baltimore was permitted to send out a deputy governor to keep his colony quiet, but it was two years before matters were settled, and the liberal laws of Maryland ratified by the English government. For several years all went well in Virginia. Bennett resigned his office in favor of Edward Diggs, who was followed,

in turn, by Governor Mathews. There were still two distinct political parties in Virginia, but their interests were too closely allied for them to keep quarreling with each other, and in these peaceful years many laws were passed which were of great value to the colonists.

After Cromwell died, the Puritans began to lose strength in Virginia, and when King Charles II was put on the throne of his father in England, the old royalist party of Virginia once more became the ruling power, and Sir William Berkeley was elected Governor. He sent a glad letter to the King telling how happy he was to serve the royal family again, and a day was set apart to the memory of King Charles I, to be kept alive by yearly feast on the 13th of January. Berkeley did not put the distinguished Puritans out of office, but let them continue under him. The House of Representatives was not to meet unless there was positive need for it, so it chanced that for fifteen years there was no popular election. Tobacco currency was the money used in paying the State officers, and the salary of the Governor was equal to the whole annual expenditure of the colony of Connecticut.

The slavery of negroes was steadily increasing, and a law was made condemning all children of mixed blood to serve as slaves for life. There were a great many white slaves, also, brought from the jails and slums of England, and these were much lower than the blacks, for they were vicious, while the negroes were only ignorant. The Church of England once more became the established church of the colony, but the Puritans were not persecuted, although they were held in check and not allowed to preach, even in private. In 1662 a fine was imposed upon all persons who would not subscribe to the orthodox religion. The Quakers here, as elsewhere, were held in disfavor, and many of them were driven into North Carolina. Penalties were still imposed for the purpose of making the colonists raise more corn and less tobacco, for the supply of tobacco was greater than the demand for it.

The English made an effort to confine all the foreign trade to themselves, but this they found it very difficult to do. In 1663 a plot was discovered to overthrow the government. This may have been the outcome of the discontent which the people felt at having these trade laws enforced. The plot was discovered and four of the ring-leaders hung. After this a day was set for thanksgiving for the defeat of the conspiracy, on the 13th of September.

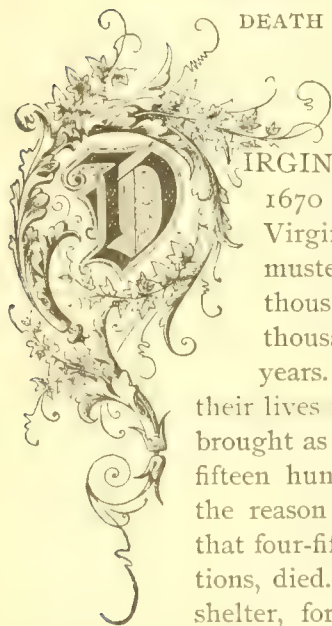
FOR FURTHER READING

FICTION—W. A. Carruthers "The Cavaliers of Virginia."

CHAPTER XXIV.

“Hey, for St. Mary’s!”

THE COLONY OF VIRGINIA—THE INDIANS—THE UPRISING OF BACON AND
HIS FRIENDS—RESTRICTION OF THE GOVERNOR’S RIGHTS—
BACON USURPS THE GOVERNMENT—RETURN OF
BERKELEY—DESERTION OF JAMESTOWN—
DEATH OF BACON—BREAKING UP
OF BACON’S PARTY.



VIRGINIA was founded upon a wrong basis. In 1670 there were forty thousand people under the Virginian government. The militia of the province mustered eight thousand men. Of these forty thousand, two thousand were negro slaves and six thousand were white servants bound for a term of years. Many of these were soldiers who had risked their lives for liberty in England, and failing, had been brought as prisoners of war to the colonies. Every year fifteen hundred white servants were brought over, and the reason that the colony was not much greater was that four-fifths of them, when put upon the new plantations, died. They had but little clothing and but poor shelter, for money was not plenty. In England, the price of tobacco had been reduced, and the price of goods which the tobacco was sent in exchange for had been raised to extravagant prices. The Virginia planter, therefore, got but little, and as they all took it upon themselves to maintain large mansions and generously entertain great numbers of guests, they economized at the expense of their slaves.

The colony was not a religious one at any time, and though Maryland and Virginia did quarrel upon religious grounds, this was but a cover for politics. It is true that there were forty-eight parishes in the colony, but most of these were illy provided with ministers. Nearly all of them were sixty or seventy miles in extent, and could not have

been well attended to even by the most zealous ministers, which the Virginian clergymen were not. They liked the free living of the colony as well as did their flocks, and were not held in much awe. There were no free schools in the colony, nor was there any printing, for which Governor Berkeley was sincerely thankful. The taxes grew worse from year to year, and the officers of the government more purse-proud and arrogant. The people had no voice in the government at all. Finally, in 1673, the whole colony was given as a present by the King to two of his favorites, Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington. This meant more taxes, and the people became thoroughly discontented. The Indians, also, were a great source of annoyance and anxiety to them, and the colonists wished to organize an armed force for protection, but Governor Berkeley was afraid of injuring the Indian trade, from which he drew a large revenue, and would not permit the people to organize for defense. But when a quiet farmer was found murdered at his own door, the colonists determined to take revenge, regardless of what the government might say. Two forces, one under Captain Brent and the other under Colonel Mason, started out. They invaded two wigwams, killing at least twenty-four Indians. This was the signal for a general Indian war. Four great Indian tribes united to take revenge—the Susquehannocks, Doegs, Senecas and Piscataways. Both in Maryland and Virginia the planters were badly alarmed, and they united in an expedition, sending out one thousand men, with Colonel John Washington and Major Thomas Truman, of Maryland. They surrounded the fort where the Susquehannocks had taken refuge, and were cruel enough to kill five of the chiefs who came out to peacefully parley with them. Such a dishonorable act, opposed as it was to all rules of warfare, brought a severe reproof from the Governor and Council. But the Indians entered upon a systematic revenge. Before spring came, sixty of the colonists had been killed upon their farms, and the Indians were forever lurking in the shadow of the bushes, and under the river banks. No one felt safe. The people crowded together in the strongest houses, and at night barricaded their windows, and slept with their arms beside them.

The colonists begged the Governor to give them some protection, but that rich old gentleman, rapidly making money for himself, and contented with his own fine living, paid no attention to their appeals. The young men, especially, became indignant at his selfishness and carelessness, and made up their minds that if he did not come to their aid, they would give open war on their own account. Among

the young men was Nathaniel Bacon, who lived upon an estate called "Curles," not far from Richmond, where Bacon Quarter Branch still stands. He had a plantation, and it chanced that his overseer upon this place was one of the unfortunates on whom the Indians chose to take their revenge. Bacon was much attached to his overseer and he swore that these outrages must be stopped. Though he was not yet thirty, he was such a daring and independent young man that all of his neighbors looked to him as their leader, and when he had sent again to the Governor, asking him for a commission against the Indians, and been met with silence, he determined to march out against the savages, regardless of consequences. A large force of men gathered about him; but even after that, Bacon sent once more to the Governor asking for a commission. As it did not come, they started on their march. They had gone but a little way when they were overtaken by a messenger from the Governor calling them all rebels, and forbidding them to proceed in any warlike action. The question was, then, whether any of them dare disobey the government of the colony. Fifty-seven of them had the courage, and went on with Bacon into the forest, but some of them feared that their property would be confiscated, and deserted him. In a short time they had annihilated the tribe of the Susquehannocks and returned to their farms.

The Governor had sent a troop of horses after the "rebels," as he called them, and while the capital was thus deserted a revolt broke out among the planters at the south of Jamestown, so that when the Governor returned he found everything in such a turbulent condition that he had to yield to some of the demands of the citizens. They asked that they might no longer be taxed for the several useless forts which their hard-earned money had to support, and also that the assembly, which had not been changed for fifteen years, might be dissolved, and the people allowed to elect their officers. It showed how well the people thought of Bacon that he was one of the new members elected. Bacon, confident and proud, came promptly to Jamestown, notwithstanding the fact that the title of "rebel" still hung over him. Governor Berkeley met him in great state. "Mr. Bacon," said he, "have you forgotten how to be a gentleman?" "No, may it please your honor," the young man replied. "Then I will take your parole," said the Governor. Later, in the presence of all the assembly, Bacon delivered a written apology to the Governor for his independent and headstrong actions. The Governor seemed to be really attached to him—and indeed few could help admiring his courage and brilliancy. But

Bacon did not trust the Governor, and thought he was trying to deceive him, and he ran away from Jamestown to rejoin his neighbors. Some people say that he was afraid he would be arrested again, and that he had to flee for his life. Perhaps he did think so, but it is hardly possible that the stern old Governor would have dared to treat a young man of high family so, although he was careless enough of the lives of the poor. In a few days, Bacon came marching back to Jamestown, with an army of five hundred men. The Governor tried to gather the militia about him, but their sympathies were with Bacon, and in a short time the insurgents were in the capital, camped upon the green near the State House, and holding all the streets. The assembly was called together, and Bacon stood by the corner of the State House, guarded by a double file of soldiers.

Berkeley came out on the steps, while the assembly hung out of the windows and cried to Bacon to shoot him, but the young rebel swore that he would not hurt a hair of his head nor any other man's, but that he wanted a commission to save the lives of his neighbors from the Indians, and reminded the Governor that he had often promised to give it to him and had broken his word. When the Governor turned and walked away, followed by the council, and Bacon saw that no attention was to be paid to his command, he grew furious, and swearing that he would kill Governor, council and assembly, and himself last, told his men to point their fusils at the windows. All the people shouted for the commission, and finally a handkerchief was waived from the window in sign of peace. The soldiers were sent away, and Bacon went alone to the assembly room, giving them some of his hot eloquence. But every one was afraid to act, and the Governor would do nothing. By morning the Governor changed his mind. He probably saw that there was nothing to do but to yield. Bacon got his commission, and immediately began organizing one thousand men to start a campaign against the Indians.

After the Governor had yielded one point, he was forced by the people to yield many. The Governor's fees were restricted, and he was no longer allowed to have a monopoly of the foreign trade. Taxes were regulated upon a certain system; so hot and furious did the members of the assembly grow in talking over these matters that many feuds were started in Virginia families, which continued over one hundred years. As soon as Bacon's back was turned, the Governor once more declared him to be a rebel, but when he ventured to say this before twelve hundred men whom he had collected about him for the purpose of

forming a militia, they turned their backs upon him and deserted, and let the fields ring with their cries of "Bacon!" "Bacon!" As soon as Bacon learned that he was once more proclaimed an outlaw, he promptly marched to meet the Governor, who fled hurriedly across the Chesapeake, leaving the province of Virginia to the will of his vigorous young opponent. Practically, Bacon was now Governor, and he began reorganizing immediately, calling a convention for the purpose of revising the laws. The matter was a very grave one, and the men who stood about Bacon knew that at any time they might be defeated and suffer the penalties of rebellion. The national revolution itself did not call for sterner constancy.

One of the best inspirations of these men was a lady, Mrs. Drummond the wife of one of Bacon's closest councilors. Her advice was followed in many matters, for she was a woman of great spirit and eloquence, and seemed to influence all who came near her.

But Berkeley was not without friends, and succeeded, through the treachery of some of Bacon's men, in getting possession of an armed fleet. As soon as the royalists through the country saw that there was a show of success for the Governor's arms, they came flocking to him, and in a short time he was in possession of a very large force. He took Jamestown on September 17th, and at once re-established the old form of government and reinstated his friends in their places. Bacon had dealt some terrible blows to the Indians, and thinking that there was no need of keeping his men from their plantations, had allowed his army to dissolve. He called them together again and hurried across the country to the capital. Throwing up some rude breastworks on a hill, he awaited the attack of the Governor. It is said that he captured certain Virginian ladies from Jamestown, and taking them to his camp, sent word that he would hold them as hostages, and that they were to be placed before his men, in case the people of the town should make a sally upon them. If this was the case, it was no wonder that the men of Jamestown could not make a respectable defence. The gentlewomen, be it said, were safely returned in course of time. Berkeley and his friends fled from Jamestown, getting upon their boats in the night and taking away their household goods, and everything, either of private or state nature, belonging to them. When Bacon entered the town in the morning, he found a deserted city, in which there was not even victuals for his men. He determined that the wasteful and arrogant cavaliers should never return, and ordered his army to set fire to the city. Every house in Jamestown was burned to the ground.

Thus perished the oldest English settlement in America. Bacon settled at Gloucester Point, and from there continued his raids upon the Indians, but in the midst of his victories he sickened and died. To this day the people of Virginia have not ceased to quarrel about the character of Bacon. A man so brilliant and determined could not but have warm friends and warmer foes. His party did not live long after his death. As soon as Berkeley heard what had happened, he sent out a force which captured several of the leading rebels. A proclamation of peace was made from which Bacon's friends were excepted. At length their stronghold at West Point was lost. Drummond, Bacon's dear friend, was taken. The old cavalier Governor met him with much ceremony, and said, with a show of courtliness, "Mr. Drummond, you are more than welcome. I am more glad to see you than any other man in Virginia. Mr. Drummond, you shall be hanged within half an hour." Worse, his accomplished wife and her five little children were driven out from the town into the forest. Many of the rebels were killed, and the bones of Bacon were everywhere looked for, that they might be hung in chains upon the gibbet, but to this day the place of his burial has never been discovered.

Affairs became so serious after a time, what with imprisonment, banishment, confiscation of property and many sorts of tortuous punishments, that the King sent some trusted men from England to inquire into the state of affairs. Berkeley was taken to England, where he died without having had a chance to defend his conduct to the King whose approval he had always been so anxious for. It is said that he died of a broken heart, because the King disapproved of his conduct, and called him an old fool. Bacon had shown the people how strong they were, and planted in the colony a stern determination to preserve legislative rights. When the time of the national revolution came, Virginia was one of the strongest pillars of the new edifice.

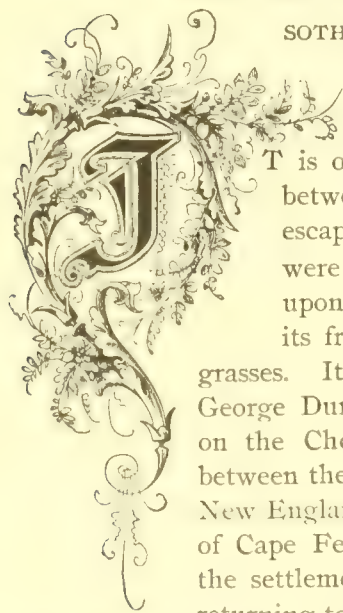
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Carruther's "The Cavalier of Virginia"
Carruther's "The Knights of the Horseshoe."

CHAPTER XXV.

Each for Himself.

THE CAROLINAS—THE PROPRIETORS AND THEIR "GRAND MODEL"—
THE ALBEMARLE SETTLEMENT—REMOVAL OF CHARLES-
TON—THE SPANISH BUCCANEERS—SETH
SOTHELL—QUAKER RULE.



It is odd that the beautiful stretch of coast lying between Florida and Virginia should so long have escaped permanent settlement. Possibly there were many unknown settlements of a quiet nature upon it, and that many a coaster had landed upon its fruitful shores and strayed among its silken grasses. It is known that one Quaker, by the name of George Durant, who was fond of solitude, built a cabin on the Chowan river, and paddled his canoe about between the banks of moss-hung trees. A company of New England men had also purchased land at the mouth of Cape Fear river, but for some mysterious reason left the settlement and their herds of cattle behind them, returning to New England with a very bad report of the spot they had visited. But it is quite possible that they were too indolent to undergo the hardships of new colonization, or that their treatment of the Indians obliged them to leave. They left a paper hidden in a post, warning everyone who landed there against the country. This paper was found by a company of men from Barbadoes, but they were not dissuaded from settling there, the country "lying commodiously by the river's side" being more eloquent than the written words of the men from New England. These settled about twenty or thirty miles up Cape Fear river.

A very short time after this, settlement under a king's charter was made in this country. The King gave to certain gentlemen all the territory, which included the present States of North and South Carolina

and Georgia, with the usual indefinite western boundary. The proprietors to whom the King gave this present were nine noble lords, one of them being Clarendon, Lord Chancellor of England, another being Duke of Albemarle, who was the leader in the restoration of the King to the throne. Besides these were Lord Berkeley and the Earl of Shaftesbury. These men laid great plans for their colony. It was to be the model settlement of the world. The constitution was prepared by John Locke, the great philosopher and statesman. So carefully prepared was this fundamental constitution that the colonies had already been established three years before they were finished. It is really worth while to quote from this "Grand Model." Eight proprietors were to be constituted lords, the eldest to be Palatine of the province, and upon his death the eldest of the survivors to succeed him. Seven other offices, of admiral, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, chief justice, high steward and treasurer, were to be divided among the others—the eldest always to have choice of a vacant place. All the rights of property were hereditary in the male line; in lack of direct male heirs, male descendants through the female line succeeded, and after them, heirs general. There were orders of hereditary nobility called land-graves and cassiques. The domains of the proprietors were called seigniories. Every seignior, barony and colony contained twelve thousand acres; each county four hundred and eighty thousand acres, of which three-fifths were to be owned by the people and two-fifths by the hereditary nobility. There was an absolute prohibition against the entrance of any common people into the titled class, and the highest dignity to which a common man might attain was to become lord of the manor, which manor must consist of not less than three thousand or more than twelve thousand acres. There was another small honor to be gained under the jurisdiction of the lords of the seignior. The men who attained to this dignity were called Leetmen. There were eight supreme courts and very elaborate laws for a parliament. The very amusements of the children were arranged, as well as the fashions of the women's gowns. All entertainments and decorations, marriages, burials, and every other circumstance and happening of home-life, was arranged for as accurately as if men were dices upon a chess-board.

In the three years that Locke spent preparing this remarkable and elaborate system of government, two colonies had become very well established in Carolina, as the proprietors called their new possession. On May 29, 1664, Sir John Yeamans brought over the first expedition. The province of which Yeamans was appointed Governor extended

from Cape Fear to the St. Johns, in Florida. Sir William Berkeley, of Virginia, was asked by the proprietors to establish a government on the Chowan. At the head of this he placed William Drummond, the man who afterwards was Bacon's faithful friend in the Virginian revolution. This settlement was called Albemarle, and here, while this wonderful piece of law-making for their benefit was going on over in England, the busy people of the settlement had made practical and simple laws quite sufficient for their needs.

The fact that they could never be more than leetmen or lords of manors, was not troubling them at all. They were building houses and canoes, clearing land and planting fields, quite unconscious of the fact that a great, imaginary population of landgraves and cassiques was going to watch over them. The New England people began to come down and settle along the coast, and a company of Bermuda people had taken up lands by the Pasquotank river.

Inducements were offered by the settlement at Albemarle to English maidens and widows, promising them honest and stalwart husbands if they were only civil and under fifty years of age. The colony had also the appearance of offering a refuge to runaway debtors, for it had a law which permitted no debt contracted outside of Albemarle to be sued for within five years. As a consequence, the reckless spendthrifts of London found this a very convenient place of abode. Marriage was a civil contract, probably because there were so few ministers in the colony. There was no wish to discourage colonial lovers by making their wedding difficult. As for the great fundamental constitution, no one paid any attention to it, and though some men rejoiced in the title of landgraves and cassiques, their inferiors gave them little added respect on this account, and the "Great Model" was finally rejected by the assembly of South Carolina in 1698.

In July, 1669, Captain William Sayle was sent over with the first expedition which the proprietors had directly made. Sayle was commissioned Governor of that part of Carolina lying south and west of Cape Carteret, or Cape Romain, as it is now called. Sayle and Joseph West reached Port Royal in January of 1670, and finally chose a place for settlement on Ashley river. This they named Charleston, which still bears the name that they then gave it. This colony did not succeed very well, for the proprietors kept a heavy drain upon their treasury. Most of the hard labor was done by negro slaves. There were too few industrious and worthy men in the country, and far too many of the dissipated and vicious class of English criminals. Sir

John Yeaman's management had been extended over these people with whom he was unpopular, and when he retired he had a large fortune, wrenched from the people and the Indians. Joseph West was appointed Governor in his place. West was immensely popular, and affairs, under his administration, began to improve immediately.

Meanwhile, the people of Albemarle had begun to express open discontent, and sent an address to the proprietors asking for a Governor who could understand their necessities. Many plans were tried, and a great deal of money spent on these people, who seemed unreasonably hard to manage. Governor after Governor was tried, but none proved efficient, and at length Seth Sothell arrived, in 1683, to take his position as Governor, to which he had been appointed some time before, but having been stolen by the Turks on his way over, had been held in captivity for some time. While Albemarle was passing through all this trouble in Northern Carolina, Charleston, under the management of Joseph West, was continuing in prosperity. It is true that there were feuds between the Puritans of New England, who had come down, and the royalists whom the proprietors in Old England had sent out. The Huguenots of France also came here, and a large company of French artisans and farmers, who understood silk manufacture, vine growing, etc.

As for the people on the Ashley river, they saw that they had made a mistake in settling so far up the stream, and in 1680 the old town was abandoned and the foundation of a new Charleston laid upon the present site of the city of that name. As they had time to lay this with care, they saw to it that the streets were large and capacious, and that good spots were reserved for the building of churches and a town house, and artillery grounds for the exercise of their militia, and wharfs for the convenience of their trade and shipping. The people came to this colony in great numbers, from England, Ireland and the West Indies. It goes without saying that the manners of this mixed company were rather loose, though for this very reason less likely to have severe church and political differences. West was a man of determination, and saw to it that his militia was kept well armed and the colony well protected from the Indians. But out of their greed for money grew a most dishonorable method of conflict, which placed a price upon the head of every Indian captive, who was then sold to slave traders. When this was brought to the notice of the proprietors, however, they put an immediate stop to this barbarous practice. The old Spanish buccaneers found Charleston a most convenient retreat, and so careless

were they with their money, and such good drinkers and story-tellers, that the citizens encouraged their coming, and when one of the Governors imprisoned some of them, the people protested so that he was obliged to release them.

One act of cruelty on their part, however, brought about the enmity of the Carolinians. A company of Scotch Presbyterians had come, under the leadership of Lord Cardross, and made a settlement at Port Royal, in 1684. Three Spanish galleys appeared suddenly before this little colony in 1686, and destroyed the place. They landed again south of Charleston, at Bear's Bluff, and sacked the settlement and took Governor Morton's brother prisoner. They intended to keep these depredations up along the coast, in retaliation for the wrecking and despoiling of some of their galleys by the colonists, but they were met by a terrible hurricane, and the galley on which Morton was held was run ashore, so that she could not be got off. The Spaniards set fire to the galley where Mr. Morton lay in chains, and he was burned to death. England would not permit the colonists to move against the Spaniards at St. Augustine, however, fearing that it might involve the two great home nations in war.

Seth Sothell, who has been mentioned as the Governor appointed in 1683, proved to be a treacherous and selfish man, and used the governorship of North Carolina for his own gain. When he heard that there was dissatisfaction in South Carolina, he called his followers together and seized the government of the other colony. Having everything under his control, he began to pile up a great fortune by a system of oppression and taxation. The proprietors were in despair, but finally appointed one Governor for all the province, north and south, who was to have his residence at Charleston. Philip Ludwell was this general Governor. He was sent over from England, and having no experience in colonial affairs, soon showed that he was not strong enough to manage the discontented settlers. Thomas Smith, one of the Carolinian planters, was put in his place. He was a quiet, discreet and judicious man, who, without governing brilliantly or decisively, brought many benefits to the colony during the two years that he ruled. It was during his administration that rice was first planted in this country. The rice grew wonderfully in the marshes along the rivers, of a superior quality to that of the east. It was but a short time before it became one of Carolina's most valuable products. Thomas Smith found the complexities of government too much for him, and wrote to the proprietors asking them to send over one of themselves to govern.

They did so, choosing John Archdale, a Quaker, who had bought out the interest of one of the older proprietors. With his hat upon his head, dressed in his quaint Quaker garment, this moderate and deliberate man stood before the assembly of the Carolinas, and told them gravely and firmly how he meant to manage them. He kept his word, with the quiet faithfulness of his sect. He inquired patiently into every complaint which reached his ears, selected a council from among his citizens, and, in spite of the fact that he was a Quaker, and opposed to war, trained the militia better than it had ever been trained before, looking to every detail of military matters himself. There were already many other Quakers at Albemarle, and these increased in numbers, and became, it goes without saying, his warm supporters. All of the colonists recognized his judicious rule, and after having got the colony into a wholesome state, appointed a successor, Joseph Blake, and returned to England. Joseph Blake ruled for four years over a colony now well established and well ordered.

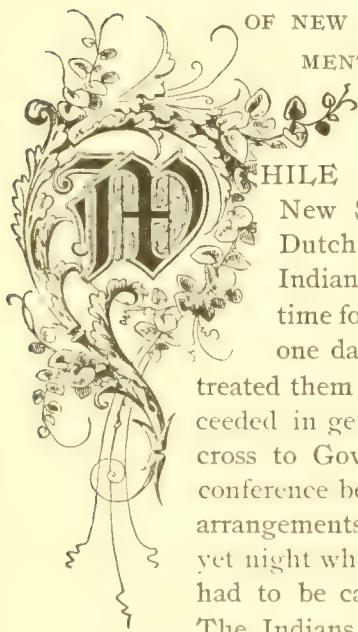
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Ramsay's "South Carolina."
Williamson's "North Carolina."
FICTION—Skitt, "Fisher's River."
Summs' "Cassique of Kiawah."

CHAPTER XXVI.

Man's Inhumanity to Man.

ATTACK OF INDIANS ON NEW NETHERLAND—DESTRUCTION OF
PAVONIA—PERSECUTION OF LUTHERANS AND QUAKERS AT
NEW AMSTERDAM—SLAVERY AMONG THE DUTCH—
ENGLISH ENCROACHMENTS—SURRENDER
OF NEW NETHERLAND—SETTLE-
MENT OF NEW JERSEY.



WHILE Peter Stuyvesant was absent conquering New Sweden, a terrible calamity fell upon the Dutch behind him in the settlement. The Indians, realizing that this would be a fortunate time for attack, swarmed through New Amsterdam one day. The people, knowing their helplessness, treated them with as much policy as possible, and succeeded in getting them to leave the place at sunset and cross to Governor's Island. It was hoped that, by a conference between the chiefs and the magistrates, some arrangements for peace might be made, but it was not yet night when the Indians grew bolder, and the military had to be called from the fort to protect the people. The Indians fled before the soldiers, took once more to their canoes and paddled out across the dark waters, yelling and howling as they went. The people watched with anxiety to see what would happen next, and in a short time a light springing up over Pavonia and Hoboken told them that the Indians had fallen upon the helpless settlers there. In a little while the fires died down, and at New Amsterdam they knew that Pavonia and Hoboken were burned to the ground and the people killed. As it proved later, only one man of each settlement was left alive, but the women and children were carried away as prisoners. The people at Staten Island knew neither of the threatenings of the Indians at New Amsterdam or of the destruction of

the villages, and were sleeping when the savages, mad with thirst for blood, came upon them. Twenty-three of the ninety people who lived among the beautiful hills of the island were killed, and all the houses were burned.

And now the people would have given all they possessed for a glimpse of the one-legged old soldier whom they had so frequently abused, and they sent for Stuyvesant with all possible haste. He returned, full of determination, and gave heart to the people as soon as he appeared among them, though now for three days the Indians had been everywhere, ravaging and killing. No man knew better than he when to fight and when to treat for peace, and now he urged the people to cultivate friendly relations with the Indians and to rescue the prisoners with ransoms. Far north upon the Hudson, at Rensselaerswyck, the sturdy young patroon, Van Rensselaer, had already been following this policy, and had secured a renewal of the treaty with the Mohawks, so that that part of the country was spared. For several years comparative peace was kept between the Dutch and the Indians, but in 1658 trouble began. Peter Stuyvesant, after the massacre of 1655, just related, had induced the people to build fences about their villages and prepare themselves more carefully against attack. He also advised them to treat the Indians with fairness, but this they would not do, and the trouble of 1658 was brought about because a band of Indians were fired upon for being noisy and drunken. It is needless to say, however, that the whisky which put them in this condition was obtained from the Dutch. For this wanton killing the Indians took a prompt revenge by murdering farmers and burning their houses, and for six years the Esopus Indians and the Dutch were almost continually at war with each other. In 1663 the Indians fell upon the village of Wildwyck, plundering the houses and setting fire to them. Many men were killed, and over forty women and children taken as prisoners. Then the Dutch were aroused to a wholesome resistance, which ended in a subduing of the Indians for a short time.

But, in spite of all this discouragement, New Netherland continued to prosper. Gradually, the people gained power and their governors yielded some of their arbitrary rights. The English towns upon Long Island became more numerous, but for the most part they lived quietly with their Dutch neighbors. Much less religious than the Massachusetts government, there was far less persecution among them. Holland was the most tolerant of countries, and her colony kept, to a certain degree, the policy which had animated the mother country in dealing with men

of new and unpopular religions. Yet at one time the Lutherans were forbidden to hold meetings in New Amsterdam, and a poor shoemaker was imprisoned for addressing them. The Quakers, too, were persecuted for a time, but it could hardly be expected that any class of men, however patient, would care to be railed against as the Dutch were by the Quakers. The women who spoke upon the streets against the steeple houses, the hireling preachers and the empty ceremonies to which the Quakers so intensely objected, were thrown into prison. One Friend, Robert Hodgson, was treated most shamefully, being chained to a wheelbarrow and made to do hard work, while a negro beat him with a four-inch tarred rope. At night he was thrust into a dungeon. This continued for several days. His sentence condemned him to hard labor two years, but at length he was terribly whipped for speaking his message to those about him, and was so torn with the rods that his life was despaired of for a time. A sister of Peter Stuyvesant prayed that he might be released. When Hodgson recovered he was released, but banished. The Quakers increased rapidly, as they always did where they were persecuted. Finally, a quiet English farmer who professed the faith was sent to Holland to appear before the directors in Amsterdam. Peter Stuyvesant's ambition to have the sect crushed had overleaped itself, for the directors of Amsterdam reproved him severely for the manner in which he had treated these people, and told him that everyone in the colony should be allowed to follow his own conscience. After this, the Friends were no longer molested, and the director had the grace to be a little ashamed of his actions.

Slavery was rapidly increasing in New Amsterdam. By 1664, Africans were brought by hundreds to New Netherland, but the Dutch themselves were fond of agriculture, and did not grow to have that complete dependence upon the negro which the Virginians had. Slavery, therefore, never developed its worst feature among the Dutch. The English kept steadily encroaching upon the land which the Dutch claimed. Lord Baltimore asserted that the whole South river region was included in his patent, and sent a delegation from Maryland to demand a surrender for the province. The people in the South river country were willing enough to yield. They were dissatisfied with the management of the Dutch West India Company, and were perfectly willing to swear allegiance to any who would give them more comforts and protection. The claims remained unsettled until after the surrender of New Netherlands. Then the Dutch and Swedes of the South river district quietly yielded to the government of England. New Haven

and the other English towns along the Sound and on Long Island were brought under the jurisdiction of Connecticut, by a grant of land which John Winthrop got from Charles II. This new patent covered not only Long Island, but all northern New Netherland.

Peter Stuyvesant was greatly alarmed for the independence of his countrymen. For two years he fought it as best he could. He was a man of statesmanlike ability and his policy was clever, but the English were very determined. They sent men to stir up discontent in the English towns situated in New Netherland, and forced Stuyvesant to consent that the Dutch should not interfere in the least with the English towns in his province. One John Scott was sent to inquire into the English titles upon Long Island and carried with him the news that the King had granted all Long Island to the Duke of York. The English towns of that district, Hempstead, Gravestead, Flushing, Newton and Jamaica, united, choosing John Scott as their president. He started through Long Island, with a force of one hundred and fifty men, to reduce the Dutch towns to obedience, but he succeeded in doing but little, and was finally imprisoned by the magistrates at Hartford for asserting his own rights, instead of those of the country he represented.

The English continued to buy up ground from the Indians which the Dutch had already purchased from them, and the King kept on giving grants of land to his favorites, which included the territory that the Dutch had long occupied. In April, 1664, a force of three or four hundred men under the command of Colonel Richard Nicolls, who acted as Lieutenant-Governor for the Duke of York, sailed for England to enforce the Duke's claims to New Netherland. Peter Stuyvesant heard of it, and did all he could to prevent it. To him, Dutch independence was more than life. He had the fortifications repaired and enlarged, raised money, procured ammunition, stored provisions in the fort and drilled his men, but in the midst of these preparations he got word from the West India Company saying that the fleet under Nicolls had been sent to force the obedience of the Massachusetts colonies, and that New Netherland need have no fear. Stuyvesant believed that this was so, and went up to Fort Orange on business.

Though it was true that Nicolls had come to see to Massachusetts affairs, he had also come to reduce New Netherland, and, in the course of a month, brought his four ships up the bay before New Amsterdam. His men seized the block-house on Staten Island and blockaded the harbor. Then a proclamation was sent out that none should be harmed who submitted quietly to the King of England. Stuyvesant hurried

down from Fort Orange, and prepared to make a defence, but no one would stand by him. When he tore up a letter from Nicolls demanding surrender, the people made him put it together again, and the mortified old Governor, who would so gladly have died for the sake of his colony, had to yield to them. He stood on the walls of the fort by the side of a gun while the ships passed by him up the harbor and dropped their anchors near the fort. He did not order the gunner to fire. He feared, perhaps, that his people would not sustain him, and that in the end the Dutch would suffer more for such an act, but it can be imagined that his proud old heart broke at the humiliation.

He wrote to Nicolls asking that a consultation might be held, but received answer that the white flag must be hung from the fort or Nicolls would come upon the town with ships and soldiers. The people of the town got up a petition asking Stuyvesant to yield. They said that they could see nothing but defeat, with all its terrors, before them, whereas if they yielded, the enemy generously promised them protection. The hired soldiers in the fort were as ready to prey upon the town as to fight the Englishmen. Stuyvesant knew this, and on September 8, 1664, New Netherland surrendered. The troops were put on a ship bound for Holland, and the English flag was raised over Fort Amsterdam, which was henceforth called Fort James. The Englishmen called New Amsterdam New York, and Fort Orange was given its present name of Albany.

A few weeks later, New Amstel, on the Delaware, was reduced, and the Dutch no longer had any authority on American soil. They seemed to take very kindly to their change of government, and matters went on with them very much the same as they had before. There was no feeling of bitterness between the two nations, and the English had the wisdom to appoint some of the Dutch to the government of offices. The city officers were left unchanged. Patroons owning the great outlying tracts of land had only to change their patent and take an oath of allegiance to England. The Duke of York gave many grants of land to Englishmen. New Netherland was divided into two provinces, one of which was given to Lord Berkeley, the elder brother of Sir William Berkeley, of Virginia, and the other to Sir George Carteret. Carteret's province was named New Jersey, and in June, 1665, Captain Philip Carteret, a brother of the proprietor, arrived as Governor, with a company of men. He settled his thirty emigrants at the point which he named, and which is still known as Elizabeth-point. In 1666, Newark was settled by a party from Connecticut.

These were joined in a little time by English people from other settlements, who made it a condition of their joining the company, that none should be admitted as freemen, or have the right to vote or hold office, who were not members of the Congregational Church.

Massachusetts was much alarmed with the fear that it might be forced to come under the Duke of York's patent. The Duke of York was a Catholic, and to have been placed under his authority would be the greatest pain for the Puritans which could be imagined. She, therefore, refused to help Nicolls, although Connecticut and New Haven gave them what help they could against the Dutch. After the surrender of New Netherland, the Duke's commissioners held a conference with representatives from Connecticut, and the boundary lines of the provinces were decided upon, Long Island being given to New York. The Duke's laws were put in force, and though there were objections to some portions, they were accepted in peaceful discontent. Nicolls ruled for about three years, while England and Holland, on the other side of the world, were engaged in war. When peace was declared, Nicolls asked that he might be permitted to go home. He had always greatly resented the loss of New Jersey, and thought the Duke of York had made a great mistake in giving away this beautiful country. Colonel Francis Lovelace succeeded Nicolls as Governor. He served very honorably for four years. In no colony of America were so many people of different nations and tongues gathered. At the time of the surrender of New Netherland eighteen different languages were spoken in New Amsterdam. Though it was under English rule, it continued to be Dutch in its peculiarities. The people were hospitable and kindly, though very simple and a little slow. They educated their children with care, and were proud of their respectability. The houses were well built and their inhabitants solid and worthy citizens. Their gardens and orchards prospered wonderfully. Along the river bank were lines of locust trees, under which the people walked in the evening. A canal was built to help commerce and a bridge constructed over it. An exchange was started for trading purposes and commerce rapidly increased. The fort held forty pieces of cannon, and was well built, being of stone, with a thick rampart of earth. Within this stood the mansion of the Governor.

In 1672 Peter Stuyvesant died, at the age of eighty, and was buried in the little chapel which he had built upon his farm.

FOR FURTHER READING:

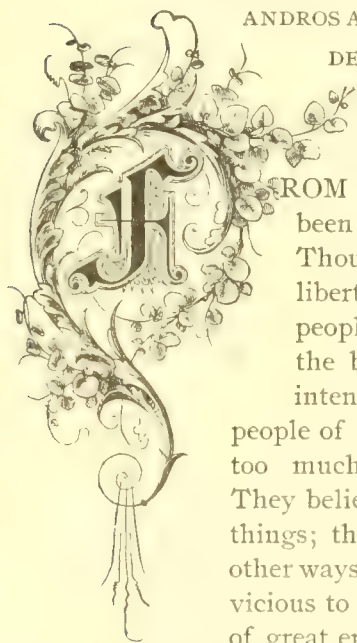
HISTORY—Whitehead's "New Jersey."

FICTION—Paulding's "Dutchman's Fireside" and "Book of St. Nicholas."

CHAPTER XXVII.

Our Country, Right or Wrong.

POLITICAL POLICY OF MASSACHUSETTS—EFFORTS OF ENGLAND TO
RECOVER THE CHARTER—EDWARD RANDOLPH—COIN OF THE
COLONY—SIR EDMUND ANDROS—THE EPISODE OF
THE CONNECTICUT CHARTER—ARREST OF
ANDROS AND ELECTION OF PHIPS—
DEATH OF PHIPS.



FROM the first, Massachusetts, as a colony, had been ambitious for political independence. Though the commonwealth had in it little liberty, it was in many respects excellent. The people were determined, and determination is the best corner-stone of government. No good intentions can make up for weakness. If the people of Massachusetts erred, it was upon the side of too much sternness and inflexibility of purpose. They believed that there was a right way of doing things; that their way was the right way, and all other ways were wrong. Liberty of conscience seemed vicious to them—for was not the conscience capable of great error? But being so determined in religious matters, made them equally so in political affairs, and no wheedling diplomacy or threatenings of the government of England could make them lose sight of their charter, which they loved as dearly as their own lives, and which they protected with no little danger to themselves. Charles I had insinuated that they were governing without authority, and in many different ways had tried to get them to return their charter to England. His letters were passed over without replies from the colonial government. To refuse directly, would have been treason. To consent, would have been loss of liberty. To keep silent, was to continue a delay which might end in victory for them.

At this time the King had prohibited the Puritans from leaving England for Massachusetts, and on several occasions had made companies of them disembark from the ships on which they had taken passage. Two of the men who took passage for Massachusetts among the company of Puritans were Cromwell and John Hampden. Had they been allowed to get away, the most attractive of the Stuarts might have kept his head upon his shoulders. After the King was dead and the Long Parliament was in session, the charter was again threatened, but the temporizing policy of the colonists again stood them in good stead. They wrote a letter to Cromwell which touched that religious strain he held in common with the Puritans of Massachusetts, and won his valuable friendship. At one time he was seized with an idea of removing the Massachusetts people to the Island of Jamaica, that they might undertake the conversion of the Catholics about there, but the general court pointed out the bad economy of such a step, and the matter was dropped. When Charles II was restored to the throne, the two regicides, Whalley and Goff, fled to America. Massachusetts, in sympathy, of course, with the Protestant revolution, protected these men, and when a royal order was sent for their surrender, succeeded in helping them to escape. But at the next general court a letter was given to Charles II which protested the loyalty of the colony, and asked for the protection of their government. The King sent a reply, but demanded again the surrender of the regicides. The Massachusetts people met this with their usual irritating silence, and the King's feeling toward them ceased to be amiable.

In May, 1661, two men were sent to investigate the humor of the colony and see why it refused to obey the King and return the charter. The people explained as well as they could that it was the foundation of their colony and their protection; that they were loyal to the home government, and desired a royal confirmation of the charter. It was granted, but with conditions which the colonists deeply resented. Every ordinance passed during the rule of Cromwell was to be pronounced invalid. Members of the Church of England should be free to worship as they chose, and all should have the right of suffrage, without regard to their religious opinions. As none but the Puritans, who worship after the Congregational method, were allowed to vote, this was naturally very displeasing to the Massachusetts people.

A few years later the royal commissioners, under Nicolls, came to secure the conquest of New Netherland, and incidentally to enforce the obedience of the Massachusetts colony to the King. This commis-

sion returned to England after the surrender of New Amsterdam. There had been a thorough attempt on the part of this commission to enforce the authority of the King, but the general court was quite as firm. Its conscience would not allow it, it said, in Puritanic phrase, to swear allegiance to the King except under the protection of the charter. The commissioners returned to England baffled. Then came the great plague of London, and after that the historic fire. The colony was prompt to send all the assistance it could. Its generosity was remarkable, considering its size. By this time New Hampshire and Maine were included in the government of Massachusetts, and the spars sent to England from Maine forests were invaluable to an army engaged in naval warfare, as the English were with the Dutch at this time.

These evidences of loyalty might have conciliated the home government had not the dissatisfaction felt toward the colonies been kept alive by Edward Randolph, a man who had been sent to settle the question of the New Hampshire government previous to its incorporation with Massachusetts. This man was heartily hated in Massachusetts. He was far too good a servant of the King, and carried stories to him which greatly damaged the colony in the royal ears. Especially did he complain that they broke the navigation laws, which, under heavy taxations, confined and limited the trade of the colony. They admitted that they did so, but said it was necessary to their prosperity. They offered, however, to cover the matter by an act of their own. Randolph would have none of this. He asked the general court to help him, but they followed their usual policy by paying no attention. Even the Governor seems to have kept a discreet silence.

Another charge brought against them was that they coined their own money, which none but the King had a right to do. One clever gentleman who had visited New England was sent for by the King that he might learn something about the matter. This man, whose name was Thomas Temple, showed the King some of the colony coins. They were of the old pine-tree variety. The King looked at them suspiciously, but Sir Thomas, being something of a courtier, told the King that the pine tree upon them was a royal oak; that the Massachusetts people did not dare to put the King's name upon their coin, and had, therefore, put on the oak, which, as everyone knew, had preserved the King's life. This money had followed wampum, the exchange of the Indians. At one time early in the history of Massachusetts musket bullets had been used in the place of money. There was a very large coinage of

the pine-tree money, and it was used for a long time. At last, in 1681, came another letter from the King, asking that deputies should be sent to him to tender the submission of the colonies. Massachusetts dared delay no longer, and sent two men to England, armed with a letter of such firm pride that the King grew angry, and issued a writ against the colony, demanding to show by what warrant it held its charter.

When Charles II died and James, his brother, became King of England, he put Sir Edmund Andros over all of New England. He was a proud Englishman of high birth, one of the old-time loyalists, who thought obedience to the King a much greater thing than the liberty of a people. His manner of living was very disagreeable to the Puritans. He gave large drinking parties and made much display of his wealth and authority, while it was their habit to live quietly.

By this time many of the men of Boston were rich. They were naturally proud of all that they had done and the respect in which they were held, but their manners were without show. The loss of the charter which they so loved, the dissolving of the general court, and the setting up of an arrogant and selfish Governor over them, filled them with an angry discontent. Randolph, whom they so hated, was made licenser of the press, and other men as overbearing and disagreeable were put in office. No respect was shown for Puritan principles, and in the Old South Meeting-House, dedicated to Puritan worship, Governor Andros insisted upon holding Episcopalian service. He levied taxes pretty much to please himself, and was filled with great indignation when the people protested. He even made the land-owners give up their titles to him for examination, and said that the deeds from the Indians were not worth the scratch of a bear's paw. He made conditions, however, by which these titles could become legal; but the people would not accept them, since it was a matter of conscience to them not to give approval to his rule. In New Hampshire, Andros had but little trouble. In Maine, he had succeeded in ousting the Baron Vincent de Chastine, Lieutenant of the French government of Acadia.

His next work was to deprive Connecticut of its charter. In vain did the people protest. They set forth all they had suffered in subduing the soil and overcoming the Indians, and defended their claims to independence, but the plea had no effect. Andros insisted upon having the charter. The distressed Connecticut magistrates sat about the table of the little council chamber listening with anxiety to the royal governor. They talked about the matter all the afternoon and until

evening had deepened and the candles were lit. Outside of the building crowds of excited citizens gathered. Andros made a final demand for the charter. It was no gust of wind that blew out the candle. In the darkness, the charter disappeared. The crowd outside dispersed. They were contented. The Governor, baffled and furious, entered an account of the meeting upon the State records, and wrote "finis" at the end. No one in Connecticut appeared to know where the charter was. It was snugly hidden in a great oak tree on the grounds of Samuel Wallace, one of the magistrates. But Connecticut had lost its individuality. It was now a part of the royal province, and in a little while New York and New Jersey were also a part of New England, under Andros.

But his authority was almost at an end. The pride of the people could stand no more, and when they heard that William of Orange had landed in England and the throne of King James was tottering, they wrote and read to the citizens of Boston a declaration of their independence from royal rule. This was read from the balcony of the town-house, on which were gathered the most prominent men of Boston. On Beacon Hill, tar barrels were blazing. All through the streets the boys were beating drums. Flags flew bravely over the city. The declaration declared that it rejoiced that the Prince of Orange was upon the throne of England and that the power of the Stuarts had been overthrown. The royal servants were arrested and thrown into jail, Andros among them. Simon Bradstreet was made president. He was eighty-seven years of age, but he was strong with the determination of the Puritans.

The Massachusetts deputies, who visited the Prince of Orange, had permission to use their old charter until a new one could be made. This hardly satisfied the people, but they were better contented when Sir William Phips was made Governor of New England. Phips had been born on the Kennebec, in Maine, and was therefore welcomed by the colonists. He had been a sheep-tender on the Maine hills, and had worked as a carpenter in the great Maine shipping yards. He married a Boston widow who had money enough to start him in business. Having a romantic character, he built him a ship for the purpose of dragging lost Spanish treasures from the sea. He went to the West Indies and hunted about for the sunken Spanish galleys which had lain there for years. One of these he found, but did not get a large amount of spoils, and was anxious to search for another which he thought more valuable. He soon interested the King of England in his project, and

was given a man-of-war, well fitted in all respects. For two years he searched without effect, having many odd experiences, and successfully stopping a mutiny of his sailors.

In spite of his failure to secure the Spanish treasure, he had so much determination and eloquence that he was equipped for a second voyage. This time he found the ship, richly laden with treasure. He received a good share of the bullion, coin and plate, and was given a cup, valued at one thousand pounds, by the Duke of Albemarle, who had sent out the expedition.

The King knighted him, and he returned to New England, wealthy and famous. It was this man who was appointed Governor of New England. It was during Phips' administration that a fleet was sent northward for the purpose of subduing Canada. The idea was to take Quebec and Montreal. The New England soldiers fared badly. They sailed along the coast and up the St. Lawrence in so lazy a way that Frontenac had time to prepare for defence. Phips was not a soldier, and Wallace, who was with him, was a coward. The combination was fatal. They made continual mistakes, and at last, with many men lost and many more sick, were obliged to turn their ships toward Boston. One of the ships was never heard of, one of them burned, and a third was wrecked.

The expense of the expedition had been so great as to bankrupt the treasury, and it was necessary to issue paper bonds. These soon fell in value thirty-three per cent., and Phips redeemed them from the soldiers, to whom they had been paid, with money from his own private fortune. He also made an expedition to Maine, against the Indians, with but small results. His impulsiveness and generosity was not sustained by wisdom or quiet determination. Though a picturesque and attractive man, he did not make a good Governor, and the vexations of his office did not improve his temper, which was always hot. At length he was ordered to England to answer certain charges against him, and in London, in 1694, he died of a fever. He was one of the most adventurous and romantic of all the men who at that time distinguished American history.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Trumbull's "Connecticut."

FICTION—W. Seaton's "Romance of the Charter Oak."

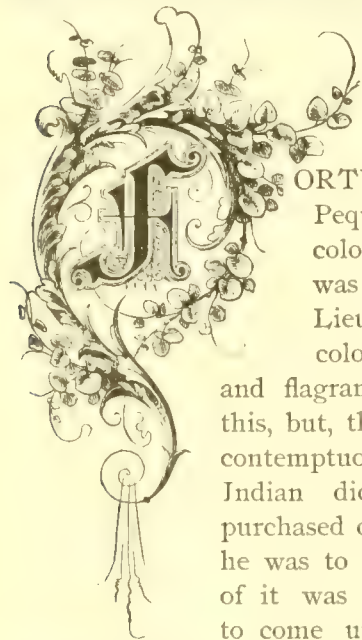
R. Dawes' "Nix's Mate."

E. Charles' "On Both Sides of the Sea."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Days of Dread.

KING PHILIP'S WAR—FIGHT AT BROOKFIELD—FIGHT AT HADLEY—
FIGHT AT DEERFIELD.



FORTY years after the destruction of the Pequots, there broke over the New England colonies another wave of Indian war. Phips was in England, and William Stoughton, the Lieutenant Governor, was attending to the colonial affairs. There had been no direct and flagrant insult to the Indians which prompted this, but, through all the long years, there had been a contemptuous treatment of them. For one thing, the Indian did not understand that when land was purchased of him for a few blankets, or scissors, that he was to yield it up forever. His understanding of it was that he gave the white man permission to come upon it; but when the white man came and steadily drove him out, when his friends were treacherously murdered, or sold to slavery, he perceived too late what was intended. The Narragansetts had much reason to hate the Englishmen. They had never forgotten the treacherous murdering of their young and beloved chief, Miantonomo. He had been executed, without cause, by the Massachusetts commissioners, away back in 1643, more to please Uncas, the Mohican chief, who was the friend of the whites, than for any offence which he had committed. At the present time, the son of Miantonomo was reigning over the Narragansetts, and he allied himself to Philip, the second son of Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoags. Massasoit, it will be remembered, had been a good friend of the pilgrims of Plymouth at the time when they needed friends. In 1660 he died, leaving two sons, to whom he had given English names, Alexander and Philip. A year after Massasoit's death, the elder of

these brothers, Alexander, was carried as a prisoner to Plymouth, because he was suspected of joining the Narragansetts for the purpose of moving against the English; but the chief died before they reached Plymouth. His wife, who was a queen among the Indians, believed that they had poisoned Alexander. When, fourteen years later, she heard that her brother-in-law, Philip, was going to make an effort to wipe out the bitter injustice and humiliation which had come to the Indians in all those trying years, she took her three hundred warriors and joined him. It was a fatal move for her. Within a year all but twenty-six of her braves were killed, and the young queen, trying to swim the river, was drowned. When the Englishmen found her body washed ashore, they cut her head from her comely shoulders, and set it up where her disheartened warriors could see it, and around it the broken-hearted braves set up a most dismal wailing.

Philip, himself, was a man with many friends. The natural vigor and determination of his character, his frank and convincing way of speaking, his upright carriage, and penetrating eye, forced the admiration of all. He had tried to treat the white man with fairness; had answered to his many unjust suspicions with dignity and calmness, but in return had received many wounds which rankled. He was made to deliver up all the English arms which his tribe possessed. This humiliated him and his tribe deeply. Another incident irritated him also. One of the Indians whom Eliot had converted, warned the people at Plymouth that there was a growing anger among the Indians, and danger that they might soon break into war. The Indians probably learned of the story which the man had told, for he was found murdered and thrust into the ice of the river. Three Indians were accused of the deed, and a trial by jury was held, in which six white men and six Indians were impaneled. The accused Indians were executed. Philip hastened preparations for war. On a fair June day in 1675, the people of Swansea appointed a day of prayer and fasting that they might be spared from the horrors of war. Going home from church, a man was killed by an Indian in ambush. Several were wounded, and two who hastened for a surgeon were killed. Over by the garrison six more men were killed. A number of houses and barns were burned. This was the beginning of the war. It was the torch, so to speak, which called together the bands of savages. All through the remote settlements many houses were burned and much property destroyed. Cattle were driven away, and frequently farmers were murdered. Eighteen houses were destroyed in Providence. Through

the months of July and August these crimes went steadily on. In August the general court sent a number of men to hold a peace conference with some Indians at Brookfield. The Indians did not appear there as they had promised to do, and Captain Wheeler, with twenty men, went to look for them. The Indians had prepared an ambush for them, and eight of the twenty Englishmen were killed. The captain and many others were wounded. They hurried to Brookfield to give the alarm to the people. Pell-mell the men, women and children rushed into the strong house in the settlement. Three hundred savages, as mad as wolves at the taste of blood, thronged into the village. They burned every house except the one where the frightened people were gathered.

For two days and nights the men in that log cabin held out. The Indians had ammunition and guns, and kept up the fight from all sides. At night they would crawl along the ground and build fires against the walls of the building. They tied fire-brands to poles and tried to thrust them through the cracks in the logs, and attached burning stuff to their arrows. But the fires were put out by the besieged. Even when burning sulphur was poured upon the roof, it was extinguished. The white men had become as cunning as the savages. They could fight them upon their own ground. The third morning came, and with it despair. The Englishmen felt they could not hold out much longer.

The Indians prepared a terrible machine. It was a cart piled high with hay and hemp, and blazing fiercely. This was pushed up against the building. It seemed as if there could be no escape. Either the brave men must see their wives and children burn there in the fire, or what was worse, let them suffer the horrors of Indian captivity. Praying and weeping, the women prepared to take their children in their arms and venture out; but at that moment a cloud overspread the sky. There was a clap of thunder and a sudden down-pour of summer rain. The fire was extinguished. So wet did the building get that there was no longer any chance of burning it. The besieged held out during the afternoon, and before evening, Major Simon Willard, of Boston, with fifty or sixty men, dashed into the town and routed the Indians, eighty of whom were killed or wounded.

The war spread steadily. Philip's influence was great. He went from tribe to tribe, haranguing, encouraging and threatening. Those he could not win to his side in any other way he bought up with wampum and gifts. No white man felt safe at this time. Every house and every church was an arsenal in which ammunition was stored.

Men carried their arms everywhere, to church, to dinner and to bed. Flint-locks were already known in America, although they were not yet in use in England.

The stories which could be told of this time would fill volumes, so many were hurried into captivity, so many tortured and mutilated. One of the fiercest fights was at Hadley, on the Connecticut, three or four weeks after the Brookfield fight. Hadley was a place for military supplies and had a garrison. Most of the soldiers were away at the time, and as at Swansea, the people were holding a feast day. Some one brought the alarm that the Indians were coming. Men had their arms at hand, and gathered about the door, while the women and children crowded into the corners of the building. The meeting-house was not a strong structure, and the Indians made an unusually savage onslaught. Resistance looked almost useless. The men were unnerved with fear. As the Indians surged up, and the first men who ventured to the open door were met with well-directed arrows, they fell back with despair in their faces. Suddenly an old man stood among them. No one had seen him before. He was tall and soldierly, with masses of flowing grey hair about his shoulders. He drew his sword like one used to wars, and stepping out with intrepid bravery, led the colonists to an attack. No one asked who he was. They simply felt that God had sent a deliverer. The Indians were chased to the woods, into whose murky depths they disappeared, and the colonists looked about for their leader, but he was gone. Not till long after did they know that it was Colonel Goff, the regicide, who was then in hiding at Hadley, and on whose head the King of England had fixed a price. No soldier with his experience could see a crowd of brave men perish for the want of a leader.

On the very same day Deerfield was attacked, and here, later in the month, the people were fired upon as they were going to the meeting-house. The block-house at Northfield was besieged, and a number of persons killed.

Near Hadley a company of young men, eighty in number, were sent out to complete the threshing and load the wagons with grain. They were under the command of Captain Lathrop. In these days a soldier was at the head of every venture. Returning in the middle of the month to Hadley, the company stopped in a large grove beside a brook, and the men broke their ranks and rested themselves in a pleasant spot. Suddenly, with no warning, seven hundred savages were upon them, and only seven of the men escaped. This was how

Bloody Brook got its name. Captain Mosley, who had been left behind to protect Deerfield, heard the firing, and hurried to the spot with one hundred and sixty men, part of whom were Mohegans. The attacking Indians were driven off.

The English, realizing that there was no prospect of peace, decided that it was best to begin a systematic warfare. Soldiers were called for. Massachusetts gave five hundred and twenty men, Connecticut three hundred, and Plymouth one hundred and fifty-nine. The Mohegan Indians gave one hundred and fifty warriors. The idea was to march under Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, to the country of the Narragansetts, in Rhode Island. There they had a strong fort, occupying six acres of dry ground. About it was a swamp, and beyond this a high palisade, protected by a *chevaux-de-frise*. There was a deep snow on the ground by this time, for it was now December. To reach the one entrance of the fort, it was necessary to get over a log as high as a man's breast. Under a fire from the Indians, four Massachusetts captains were killed, and three of the Connecticut leaders. But Captain Benjamin Church, putting those firm lips of his together, marched around to the rear, and entered there, carrying three bullets in him, but still in fighting condition. The savages were driven out into the swamp and beyond that, leaving seven hundred dead behind them. Three hundred of their wounded men died later. A great many of the old and feeble were burned in the wigwams which the Englishmen were foolish enough to fire, within the fort. The colonists also lost heavily.

In spite of this terrible battle, Philip was determined not to yield. He felt, no doubt, that it was the turning point in his countrymen's history. If they lost their independence now, it would never be regained, but if they could succeed in exterminating the hated English, all might be as before. Solitude would be theirs again, and liberty their own. They could paddle their canoes at peace upon the wild rivers. The deer would return to the forest. The clam banks upon the coast would be unmolested. They would no longer be the victims of the white man's pride and cupidity. In February, Lancaster was attacked, but after that, for a month or two, affairs were quiet, and the colonists were rarely disturbed. In May, a large party of Indians gathered on the desolated fields by Deerfield, and began planting them. This news was brought to Hatfield, and Captain Turner rode twenty miles, with one hundred men at his back, reaching the Indians in the night. The roar of the fall on the river kept the horses' hoofs from being heard. Leaving the horses in the ravine, the soldiers fell upon

the Indians just at day-break. The Indians, dazed with sleep and entirely unprepared for the attack, could not do themselves justice. One hundred and forty of them took to their canoes, but, in the panic, went over the falls and perished. Many were shot, and others took refuge in the rocks, or were put to the sword. Turner lost but one man; the Indians lost three hundred. But another large party of Indians, not far distant, heard the fight, and soon overtook Turner and his men. The brave captain was killed, with many of his followers, but most of them reached Hatfield safely.

Philip had a fishery near the falls, from which he had intended to provide his men for the winter, and the breaking up of this greatly disturbed him. He made an attack upon Hatfield, but was defeated, and soon after he led seven hundred Indians against Hadley again, but many of them were slain and they were obliged to hastily retreat. Then he moved farther south. Town after town was sacked and burned. Now he was in Rhode Island, now in Connecticut, and now in Massachusetts. In these days every man became a fighter. Even the boys were enemies to be dreaded, and on more than one occasion whole families had been saved, in the absence of men, by the pluck and readiness of mere urchins. It was a great blow to the Indians when Nanuntenuo, the proud and revengeful son of Miantonomo, was taken captive. He was executed, of course, but was glad to die, so he said.

All through the spring and summer of 1676 the colonies were in terrible fear. When Sudbury was attacked and partly burned, Captain Wadsworth, hurrying to the relief, was caught in ambush and killed, with sixty of his men. Captain Pierce was surprised, and his company of fifty Englishmen massacred. Only one of them escaped. Major Talcott, with a force of three hundred mounted men, surrounded a larger body of Narragansetts in a swamp in Rhode Island. All of them were either killed in the assault or put to death afterward.

Philip was becoming discouraged. He saw that his men were breaking down under the strain. The white man had learned all his secrets. He understood the decoy, the night attack, and the stealthy waiting as well as the Indian, now, and to this he united greater endurance and courage in the face of heavy odds. Twice Philip had barely escaped capture. He had been obliged to disguise himself. At last, worn out and disheartened, he fled to his home on the isthmus of Mt. Hope. An Indian betrayed his whereabouts to Church. Church, whom Philip feared more than any other living man, started for the place at once. It was the middle of the night when he reached there.

Across a swamp, on a bit of upland, slept the great chief, with his Indians about him. The Englishmen sent a heavy fire into the camp. Philip sprang to his feet, gun in hand, and rushed forward. A minute later he was dead, with his face in the dark swamp water.

The Indians could do little more. Their great leader, whose eloquence was such an inspiration to them, whose courage was inexhaustible, and whose plans had been so daring and ingenious, was dead. The power of the Indians over all that section of the country was gone. Many rushed westward, and many, alas! served as slaves in the West Indies. Others sought the powerful friendship of the white men. All over New England there was mourning, for hardly a house had been left untouched by death.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Abbott's "History of King Philip."

FICTION—R. C. Sands' "Yamoyden."

Cooper's "The Wept of Wish-ton-wish."

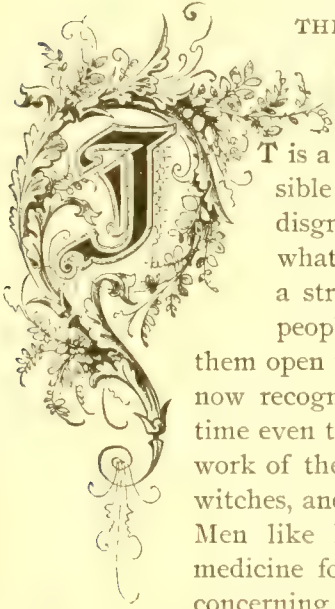
G. H. Hollister's "Mount Hope."

Pierce's "Narragansett Chief."

CHAPTER XXIX.

A Passing Madness.

HOW THE WITCH-CRAFT HALLUCINATION STARTED—SAMUEL PARRIS
AND HIS WITCH-CRAFT LIBRARY—THE TRIAL AND DEATH
OF GILES COREY AND OTHER VICTIMS OF
THIS HALLUCINATION.



It is a pity that children should have been responsible for some of the most dreadful crimes which disgraced New England. It was they who started what is known as the witch-craft delusion. It was a strange time. In Europe, as in America, the people were morbid. A series of misfortunes made them open to this disease of the mind, which physicians now recognize as a sort of hysteria, but which at that time even the wisest and best of men supposed to be the work of the devil. Every one believed that there were witches, and the Bible said that witches should be hung. Men like Bacon went to the trouble of inventing a medicine for witches' ointment. Statesmen made laws concerning it. Ministers preached about it from the pulpit. To tell hideous stories of bewitched people about the winter fireside was one of the favorite amusements. Every one who wore scarlet, or who chanced to be peculiar, was sure to be thought a witch. This fearful disease had raged in Europe for a good many years before it reached the new world. So extensive had it become that a great many books had been written on the subject, and these books had been brought in considerable numbers to America. Samuel Parris, a man who had been a merchant in Barbadoes, but who had become a minister upon moving to Salem, had a number of these books in his library. In a town where books were comparatively few, they were naturally much borrowed and read, and appealed, as the horrible and mysterious always does, to the imagination of the people in general, and to children in

particular. In Parris' family also was Tituba, an old slave, half negro and half Indian. She knew all the ways of witch-craft, and it was supposed that she could conjure up spirits with her black, bony hands, or, if she chose, ride through midnight storms, safely seated on a broomstick. Not only has she figured in history, but in fiction and poetry, and all who know anything about those dreadful days know about Tituba and John Indian, her husband. Tituba had a habit of secretly gathering the children of the Parris and neighboring families into the kitchen, and there, by the flickering light of the fire, when the house was still and the old people away, she taught them all the dark secrets of her imaginary art, and instructed them in the way the bewitched children acted, telling them about the little Goodwin girl whom Cotton Mather had taken to live with him because she was bewitched. He wished to have her near him that he might study the actions of Satan in her, and it was through watching her that he came to believe in witch-craft, and did so much harm by advocating it. The little Goodwin girl had accused a quiet Irish washer-woman of having bewitched her. Whenever the woman came near, she fell into spasms and sank upon the ground. Three other children did as they saw her do, and the poor washer-woman was hanged. Tituba told these stories with delight, and the company of little girls practiced the actions of the bewitched. The children imagined such dreadful things that at last they were really no longer able to control themselves, but did really suffer almost as much as they had at first pretended to. So dreadfully did they act that doctors were called to visit them. They immediately said they were bewitched. The next thing then was to find the witches. The Reverend Parris, believing as he did in the existence of such a thing, was not illy pleased to have it come within his reach. If he really did not encourage the children in the matter, he at least influenced them to declare against his enemies. The first person they cried out against was Sarah Goodwin. She was accused of pinching them, and running pins and needles into them. The justices tried her, and sent her to prison. Many more were sent after her. Then came the charge against Giles Corey, a staunch old farmer, who was foolish enough to believe in witch-craft. The children cried out that he tormented them, and they fell into a strange illness, so real that the people had no choice but to believe in their sufferings. Corey was pressed to death and treated with great contempt in every way. The acquisitions came faster and faster. A court of seven judges was appointed to decide upon the many cases brought before them. Among the children the epidemic spread. So

strong a hold did it have on them, that they actually declined until they were little more than skin and bones. A sort of second sight, or clairvoyancy, mingled with their hysteria, and the actual things which they foretold, or, being at a distance, correctly related, helped to confirm the popular belief. It got dangerous for one to have the least peculiarity. Any spot on the body—a mole or mark—was sufficient to convict one of being a witch. Gentle Rebecca Nourse, a farmer's wife, living in her own house and quietly tending her children, her house and her cows, was accused of being one of these baleful creatures, and was taken from her home, executed and thrown into the pit which was set apart for the witches, Christian burial not being allowed them. Here, at midnight, when no one was watching, came her little children and her husband to search for her poor body and give it a more gentle burial.

Longfellow writes of Bridget Bishop, a jolly woman, fond of jests and bright dresses, who was condemned as much for wearing a scarlet petticoat as for anything else. Everyone who had an enemy saw a quick way of taking revenge upon him, by accusing him of being a party to the strange wickedness. The prison became crowded. As for the children, they seemed to have found themselves the most important and dreaded personages in the community. They grew very clever at imitating the people whom they accused of bewitching them, and children with soft voices acquired the power of talking like a man in deep, bass tones. It was not all imagination. It became insanity. One child, more conscientious than the rest, realized after a time that she did not feel all that she said she felt. She confessed, and accused the other children of deceit. The children promptly denounced her as a witch. But the matter had aroused the suspicions of the people. The wiser of them began to think it was a plot, and when at length Mrs. Hale, a woman of great beauty of character and of high station, was accused, the sympathy of the people was with her. Captain John Alden, a man of high character and good family, was accused. He made a sensible defence, which had no effect upon the justices, but at length he escaped. At last the children even dared to accuse the Governor's wife, and when they came to imitating some members of the Mather family, even Cotton Mather, the Methodist divine, concluded there must be a mistake somewhere. The matter ended almost as suddenly as it had begun. Governor Phips released one hundred and fifty persons from the jail. Several hundred more had, at one time and another, been imprisoned there, but only twenty were killed—not counting the two poor dogs which were formally executed for being familiars of witches.

For one especial cruelty was Parris responsible. He hated, with all the narrowness of a minister of the time, the Reverend Stephen Burroughs, who seems to have had a belief which did not exactly agree with that accepted as orthodox by the Salem people. Parris had him driven out of the colony, and he took refuge with his family in Maine. At the time of the witch-craft excitement Parris succeeded in getting him accused and having him brought away down to Salem to be tried. An elder and two constables were sent to bring him, as Parris had chosen to given him the reputation of a dangerous man. He went with them cheerfully enough, having no thought that the matter was so serious. He was a remarkable man, of much animal magnetism, with a very commanding and penetrating eye, and all who came near him felt his influence. It was this power, added to his eloquence, which had made Parris jealous, and indeed had laid him open to suspicion, for it was not safe in those days to know very much. He understood wood-craft as an Indian does, and being a man remarkably strong and unusually clever, had done many things which his more stupid associates could not understand. Having a reputation of this sort, the terrified constables and the elder who were sent after him were distracted when he insisted upon leading them at night through a pathless forest, the way which he knew as well as his own garden. A terrible storm, with most violent lightning, broke over them, frightening the horses, breaking the trees, and driving the men half mad with terror. To this day the spot in New Hampshire is called Witches' Trot. Once at Salem, all was over with him. He never went back to his wife and children beyond the forest. This dreadful chapter of Massachusetts history was very short. It was confined to the year 1692. In no time was it so sharp as it had been in the Old World, but it was bad enough, and made a great blot of ignorance and superstition on the fair page of native history. In 1720 a second attempt was made to stir up this old frenzy, but civilization had gone too far. The people would have none of it.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Upham's "History of Witch-craft."

FICTION—J. Neal's "Rachel Dyer."

POETRY—Longfellow's "Giles Corey."

Whittier's "Witch of Wenham."

Whittier's "Mabel Martin."

Whittier's "Changeing."

Whittier's "Wreck of Rivermouth."



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

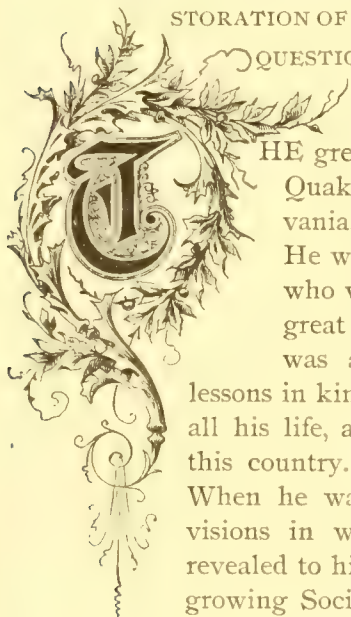
THE FUR CAP.

After an engraving by Desnoyers.

CHAPTER XXX.

A Gentleman.

WILLIAM PENN—THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA—REMARKABLE
GROWTH OF THE COLONY—CHANGE OF GOVERNMENT—RE-
STORATION OF PENN—HIS DEATH—THE SLAVERY
QUESTION—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.



THE great State of Pennsylvania was settled by the Quakers, or Friends. In speaking of Pennsylvania, it is necessary to speak of William Penn. He was the son of a noted admiral of England, who was not only a man of much intellect, but of great humor and affability as well. His mother was an unusual woman also, and gave her son lessons in kindness and amiability which influenced him all his life, and had no little effect upon the history of this country. From his earliest years he was unusual. When he was a school-boy of eleven, he had strange visions in which the works and glory of God were revealed to him. It was by such things as this that the growing Society of Friends was distinguished. But at this time, Penn knew nothing of the Friends nor the frequency of these visions in England. Yet Penn was no dreamer; he was a gay, active boy, very strong of arm, capable of swift running, and fond of that jollity which forms so large a part of the schoolboy's life. In the course of time, a great preacher of the Society of Friends came to Oxford. Young Penn became a willing and enthusiastic convert.

A short time after this, it was ordered that the surplice should be worn by the Oxford students. Penn could not permit this evidence of Episcopal pride to pass unchallenged. He and some of his friends tore the detested garments over the students' heads. He was expelled from school and banished from home. The tears of his mother, however, softened the heart of the proud admiral, who forgave his son and

sent him to Paris, in the hope that its allurements might win him from his fantastic ideas; and for a time they did, and he was as gay and heedless as any of the youths who lounged about Paris. He was bright and intelligent, and charmed London society with his graceful manner and witty speech; but it was only a short time that he gave himself up to this light manner of living. Again he was drawn to the meetings of the Friends, and after this, sincerely devoted his life to their service. At one time he was fined for attending their meetings; at another he was thrown into the Tower for writing a book, setting forth their views, but while there, he continued to write as his conscience prompted him. It was seven months before he was released. Soon after this, his father died, reconciled to his son's strange beliefs, and leaving him a large property, which Penn spent for the most part in the cause of the Friends.

It was Penn's ambition to start a colony in the New World; already he had been interested in some settlements there. New Jersey, it will be remembered, had been granted to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, but the people of New Jersey protested against their ruling, which was overbearing and unfair. There had been an insurrection; two colonies had been made—East and West New Jersey—and Berkeley had sold his share to a company of Quakers. William Penn was one of this company. A few years later, Sir George Carteret died, and his rights in East New Jersey were sold to twelve Quakers, and in this purchase William Penn had a share. But here there were so many Swedes, Dutch and Scotch, that no effort was made to make the colonies distinctly Quaker. Over these, Andros, the royal Governor, ruled. Penn was anxious, as has been said, to make a settlement of his own, and after his father died, he told the King, who was seriously in arrears with the admiral's pay, that he would liquidate this debt if he would give him a grant of territory in America. Penn's courtly air and handsome face and form, and his experience in diplomatic matters, stood him in very good stead. In 1680, he obtained a grant from Charles II, including forty thousand square miles of territory between Maryland and New York. To this the King gave the name of Pennsylvania. So well known was he in Europe, not only as the son of the distinguished admiral, but as a man of great originality and courage, that the sturdy, industrious people of Germany, as well as those of his own country, were anxious to follow him. He did not, like George Fox, neglect everything aesthetic, and dress himself in a not very clean suit of leather, and though he wore the garb of the Friends, he saw to it

that the fabric was good and the fit excellent. Dress and address are the two first things which one notices in a stranger. William Penn was too much of a statesman not to appreciate this. He knew that one could afford to be eccentric, but not disagreeable. It is not strange, however, that he was popular.

His principles of government were of a broad nature. There was to be perfect liberty of conscience and political freedom for all—even the Indians. Only murder and treason were to be punished by death. Penn would not even have had *these* laws had he chosen himself, and while he lived, no gallows was ever erected in the province. He believed that a prison should be a place of reform. No oath was necessary to the man of good conscience. All pleasures which had in them any possibility of evil, such as cock-fighting, bull-baiting, card-playing and theatre-going, were forbidden. His scheme of government included one act which might be well imitated now—lying was punished as a crime. There was to be a trial by jury for all cases of injury, and Indians were to be among the jury, whenever Indian rights were in question. A German company bought fifteen thousand acres from Penn, and hastened to emigrate thither in 1681. It was in 1682 before Penn and his friends set sail. Penn had an audience of the King, at which he astonished his Majesty by telling him that England had no right to molest the savages upon their own soil. "What," cried the King, "have I not the right of discovery?" "Just suppose," said Penn, in his calm way, "that a canoe full of savages should by some accident discover Great Britain; would you vacate, or sell?" When Penn reached New Castle, on the 27th of October, the Dutch and Swedes gave him a very cordial welcome. He naturalized all the inhabitants of the province, and then hastened up the river to Upland, which is now Chester, where he met the delegates who had already been selected by his commissioners. This was the first assembly. Everyone caught the infection of his sincerity and gentleness, and the arrangements made there by the assembly were remarkable for their justice and liberality.

Penn was delighted with the new country. The abundance of natural fruits and berries, the beauty of the woods and hills, and the clearness of the river, charmed him. He went up the river himself, looking for a suitable site for the prospective city, and decided upon the sweeping peninsula around which the Delaware flows. This he named Philadelphia, that all might know the sentiment which prompted its founding. Penn called it his "holy experiment." He laid out the

city himself, upon a great scale of squares; all of the avenues to be lined with trees, and houses to be set so that they might be surrounded with gardens. In the first year twenty-three ships filled with colonists came to Penn's province.

The Indians, for the first time, were treated with absolute equality; there was not a touch of the arrogance of the Spaniard, the sternness of the Puritans, the commercial greed of the Dutch, or the bewildering mysticism of the French Jesuits. Penn was simple and direct. He ate with the Indians, out-ran them in jocular contests, and tried leaping matches with the sprightly young braves. Under the famous elm tree at Shackamaxon, the old resort for Indian councils, he held a treaty with the Indians. He and his followers wore no arms, and Penn was distinguished from his followers only by a sash of blue silk netting, falling like a soldier's scarf across his shoulders. The sachem of the Indians carried in his hand a chaplet, and when he donned this, the savages flung their arms to the ground, in token that the treaties were inviolable. The address which he made to the Indians won their hearts completely, and in a short time he had learned their language, and no longer had need of an interpreter. This increased his popularity among them. The driving bargains of his officers in after years were never laid to his charge.

Very early in its history, Pennsylvania had a school. Enoch Flower was the teacher's name, and for four shillings a quarter he taught the boys and girls of Philadelphia to write, and for six shillings, to read. He would take boarding-scholars, giving them "diet, lodging, washing and schooling for ten pounds the year." Nor was it long before a printing press was set up. Penn had a friend, James Claypool, who was quite an eminent scholar, and who may have inspired these movements to an extent. Penn built him a mansion, called "Pennsbury Manor," at Bristol, on the Delaware river. Here he lived happily for two years, when he found it necessary to go to England, to answer some of the charges which his envious enemies had brought against him. He remained in England fifteen years, during which time affairs did not run as quietly in the colony as might have been desired. There were religious quarrels and political quarrels, until the colonies were so misrepresented in England that the government was taken away from Penn and given to a royal commissioner. In 1694, however, William and Mary restored the province to Penn's absolute government—no one had ever questioned his proprietorship—and in 1699 Penn himself came from England, not a little weary of courts and the friction of cosmo-

politan life, intending to pass the remainder of his years in his beautiful home on the Delaware, surrounded by those who knew and appreciated his noble qualities of heart and mind.

Not a little astonished was Penn when he saw Philadelphia, then a little more than eighteen years old. Doubtless he had carried in his mind's eye a picture of the colony as he left it, largely made up of rude huts, with chimneys of mud. When, therefore, he saw the noble city of over two thousand houses, most of which were built of brick, in that chaste, placid architecture of the Friends, and when he saw the wharfs and viaducts with their busy trade, he must have received quite a shock, in his sudden realization of the growth and success of his "holy experiment." He took for his own residence the slate-roofed house which stood in Second street, at the southeast corner of Norris' alley, until the year 1868, when it was torn down.

John Penn, always called "The American," to distinguish him from William Penn's other children, was born in this house, of Penn's second wife, Hannah Callowhill, a delicate, sweet woman, whom Penn dressed with much pride in silks and jewels in spite of the stern Quaker regulations in regard to costume. She preferred the country seat up the Delaware, and here Penn lived the greater part of his time, in something of that state in which he had been raised. The house stood upon a hill, and was approached by an avenue of poplars. On one side ran the river, with the bank terraced down to it. The lawns were as well kept as the greener ones of England, and the gardens were planted, not alone with trees indigenous to Pennsylvania, but with many others brought from Europe and the tropics. The "forest primeval" of native elms and oaks was undisturbed, and in this were no formal walks, but only winding, woodland roads, made by accident, rather than design.

Penn, like most Englishmen, was fond of good horses, and kept a stable of blood animals. Hannah Penn, tending her baby, or embroidering a screen in her boudoir, sat among satin-covered chairs, damask curtains, and silken blankets. The furniture was solid oak, spider-legged and carved. Rare china and plate filled the dresser. To all, there was an open house at Pennsbury Manor; every one was welcome, regardless of his or her standing, for Penn could never see a distinction of persons, and showed as much courtesy in the society of Indians as he did in his converse with kings. One entertainment which he gave to the Indians upon the lawn was so extensive that a hundred roasted turkeys were prepared as a part of the bill of fare. At a time when wild turkeys

frequently turned the scales at forty-six pounds, the banquet must have been ample. Penn accepted hospitality with as much grace as he gave it, and did not drop his courtly manners when he entered the wigwam of the Indian and ate hominy and acorns with him. There is a story told of his riding to the Derby meeting with little Rebecca Wood, a bare-legged country girl, sitting behind him on his well-groomed horse—himself immaculate, no doubt, as to attire. Those two years spent at Pennsbury Manor were, without question, the happiest of his life.

He was one of the first men in America to dimly perceive that an immorality lay in slavery. The truth did not come to him openly, for he and the rest of the Friends might well ask, "Did not the Bible sustain it?" Penn himself was an owner of slaves, but he felt in them, as in all the men he met, the common current of humanity, and in his will he gave freedom to his blacks. He tried to procure the passage of a law for the regulation of marriage of the negroes, but this law the assembly rejected. In 1701 he was obliged to leave the colony and return to England, and never again did he return to that peaceful spot upon the Delaware where the most placid years of his life had been spent. In England, he met with much trouble. At one time the charter of his province was threatened; again a lien was put on it through misrepresentation and fraud. He found himself heavily in debt, and was arrested and lodged in Fleet Prison for nine months. But even the evil reports which came from his beloved colony concerning the mismanagement of government were not so distressing to him as the folly and selfishness of his eldest son, William, whom he sent to America in hopes that he would find more wholesome companions than in profligate London. In Philadelphia, his debauchery and drunkenness were borne with much patience, because he was the son of their dear Governor, but he was finally arrested in a tavern brawl; the court brought an indictment against him. Governor Evans, who was then administering affairs in the province, was his boon friend, and had been in the same disgraceful brawl at which Penn was arrested, but neither Penn's name nor his powerful friends could move the Quakers when they had determined to do their duty by a sinner, and he left the province in disgrace, leaving a large company of disgusted creditors behind him.

So dissatisfied did the people become with the Governor that they actually defied his authority, and it was found judicious to dispose of him. Charles Cookin succeeded to the governorship in 1709, and ruled quietly, but without much distinction. His troubles were of an abstract

kind, relating entirely to religious obligations, subtile enough to have satisfied Puritan Salem. Following him came Sir William Keith, a governor of more sense, though of little more force. Philadelphia had but little sympathy with the warlike actions of the other colonists; she was at peace with the Indians herself, and did not take a personal interest in those numerous expeditions against the French and Indians which disturbed the northern and southern colonies and steadily sapped their strength.



WILLIAM PENN'S RESIDENCE.

As for Penn, he lived till 1718, and passed the last six years of his life in tranquility at Ruscombe, his English estate. Slowly and steadily his disease destroyed his powerful mind and wrecked his active body. In 1732 Thomas Penn, his second son by his second marriage, moved to Philadelphia. He was never popular, but his elder brother, who came two years later, had something of the magnetism, vivacity and cordiality which distinguished his father. This was under Patrick Gordon's administration, and a time of great prosperity. Though the colony was the youngest on the continent, it had more white inhabitants than all Virginia, Maryland and the two Carolinas. Philadelphia was

incomparably the finest city in America, and second in magnitude. Its trade was very extensive and its manufacturing excellent. When Gordon died, in 1736, George Thomas followed him, and quietly ruled for nine years.

Philadelphia, like Boston, had become the resort for enterprising boys. One of these boys was Benjamin Franklin, a rather comely printer's boy of seventeen, who quarreled with his elder brother, and made for the great "City of Brotherly Love." Everyone knows how he walked down the pavement, lonesome and hungry, eating his roll of bread; everyone knows of his unfortunate engagement with the printer, and how Governor Keith finally took him into his favor, or pretended to do so, and sent the eager lad to London. There Benjamin found out how little the Governor's promises were worth, and returned to Pennsylvania. After this he prospered, and in 1728 was one of the men who established the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, a paper which lived for 120 years. He had previously written for the *New England Current*, his brother's paper, and, indeed, it was on account of these articles on public affairs, that he had quarreled with his brother. Through his efforts, a library was started in Philadelphia in 1731. In 1741 he founded a philosophical society, and in 1749 a university in Pennsylvania. This was at a time of great national perplexity, which must be left for another chapter.

Collectors of rare American literature cherish a few copies of "Poor Richard's Almanac," which are still extant. This he issued for twenty-five years. It was a collection of saws and sayings which have passed into the phraseology of our country until they have become classic. The annual sale of this almanac was about ten thousand copies. These were handed down from family to family by country people, until they were worn to shreds. Franklin wrote many papers on political, financial and scientific subjects, and even now and then dipped a lighter pen in ballad-writing. He was the first great scientist of America. To him belongs the honor of showing that lightning is electricity, and the invention of the lightning-rod is his. Indirectly, all of our great electrical experiments are traceable to him.

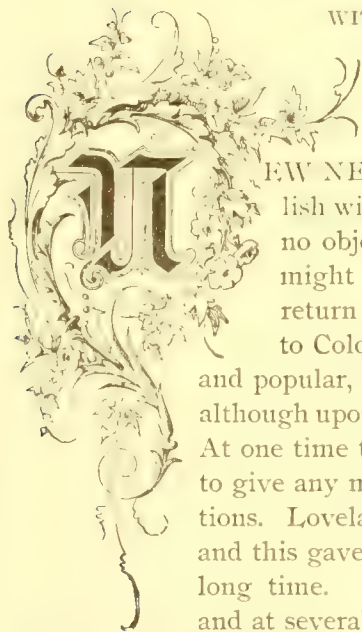
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Sapier's "Philadelphia"
- BIOGRAPHY—Ellis' "Penn"
- FICTION—W. H. G. Kingston's "A True Hero"
- POETRY—J. G. Whittier's "Pennsylvania Pilgrim."
- DRAMA—Schmidt Eber's "William Penn."

CHAPTER XXXI.

The Dutchman's Fireside.

THE RULE OF LOVELACE AT NEW YORK—THE DUTCH RETAKE THE
CITY—IT AGAIN REVERTS TO THE ENGLISH BY PATENT—
GOVERNOR ANDROS AND HIS UNPOPULAR RULE—
LEISLER ASSUMES CONTROL—TROUBLE
WITH NEW FRANCE.



NEW NETHERLAND was governed by the English with such happy results that the Dutch had no objections to any change of governors which might be desired, and when Nicolls wished to return home, the people gave a cordial welcome to Colonel Francis Lovelace. His rule was quiet and popular, and entirely without difficulty at the capital, although upon the borders there were some disturbances. At one time the men of the Long Island towns refused to give any money for renewing the New York fortifications. Lovelace ordered their votes to be publicly burned, and this gave rise to difficulties which continued for a long time. In the north, the French were disturbing, and at several times it was thought that war must be declared against Courcelles, the Governor of Canada. But, while the people of New York were still thinking about the subject, they were given matters of more serious interest to attend to. England was again at war with Holland, and from time to time rumors reached New York that a Dutch fleet was on its way northward from the West Indies to retake the harbor. Lovelace was absent for the time being, and paid no attention to the summons from his Lieutenant-Governor.

On August 7, 1673, twenty-three Dutch ships, carrying sixteen hundred men, sailed into the bay of New York. The Dutch of the city rejoiced at the sight of their countrymen, and were not long in telling them the true condition of affairs. Such a force of men could well

afford to laugh at the fret and fume of the village, in which men were running to and fro as if they had lost their heads. Drums were beaten about the streets. One nervous smith set to work on fire-locks, and the militia of the surrounding towns was called for. The Dutch commander quietly demanded surrender, and when the English came to treat with him and to beg for time, he quietly turned an hour-glass over and said that if the English did not surrender within half an hour he would open fire. He did as he said, and a few in the fort were killed, and others wounded. Six hundred Dutch landed on the banks of the Hudson. The fort surrendered, and the Dutch again took possession where Peter Stuyvesant had once stumped about in martial pride. The Dutch names were restored to cities, forts, rivers and bays. The Dutch burgomaster took the place of the English mayor.

Antony Clove was chosen temporary Governor. Two ships-of-war were left him for protection, and the rest of the fleet sailed quietly away. New England was very much frightened when it heard of the success of the Dutch, but the Puritans were cautious, and though they took means for defending themselves, they did not venture to give the English of New York any assistance in ousting the Dutch. New York was easy to manage. So the citizens escaped plunder and outrage, they cared but little who their masters might be. The lawless class, which makes change of government in older cities so much to be dreaded, had no existence in the colonial towns.

Over in Europe, events were taking a new direction. Peace was made between England and Holland, and though the States-general were really the winners of peace on their own continent, they nevertheless gave up their possessions in the New World to the English. A patent of the New Netherland territory was given to the Duke of York in 1674. Major Edmund Andros was appointed by him to govern New York. The English names were restored, the officers reinstated, and all went on as it had under the rule of Nicolls and Lovelace. This was fifteen years before the time that Boston impeached the government of Andros and put him in prison. He thought but little of New York, which contained only six or seven thousand people, while New England had at least one hundred and twenty thousand—such a difference was there between the easy-going Dutch and the fiercely-determined Englishmen. Under English rule, a more rapid growth came to New York. There was not a little emigration from England. The industry of whaling, which brought so much wealth to Long Island, was taken up. All together there were twenty-four towns in the settlement and a

remarkable increase of farms, on which not only wheat and tobacco was raised, but even horses. Fish, peltry and lumber were quite heavily exported. In a very short time the manufacture of flour became an important industry.

When Andros chose to visit New York he was received with great pomp, which must have been a balm to his pride, hurt by the contempt with which the people of the southern colonies treated him. He went to Albany for the purpose of holding a council for the chiefs of the five nations, and succeeded in securing the promise of their friendship. Perhaps one reason that the New Yorkers had so little against Andros was that they saw so little of him, and that he thought the colony of too slight importance to greatly interfere with.

In New York were two decided political parties—or religious parties, for at this time it was hard to separate the two. James, the Catholic King of England, had been obliged to flee to France. William and Mary, the Protestants, had been proclaimed the King and Queen of England. The thoughtful saw that there would be danger of a conflict between the Catholic and Protestant factions. When Andros was deposed by the Boston Committee of Safety, the government of New York was left in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor, Nicholson, and of the council. The Dutch inhabitants of New York were in sympathy with William and Mary. The English of New York were very largely Catholics. In New York, no proclamation of William and Mary was made, and the chaplain at the fort continued to pray for the infant Prince of Wales, and that the dethroned James might be victorious over his enemies. In consequence, there was a steadily increasing discontent shown among the Dutch. Nicholson feared that the question was getting too troublesome for him, and resigned his position and sailed for England. The council was very much frightened, which, as it lacked both brains and courage, it might well be. No one was appointed to take command, and it came about quite naturally, that one of the captains of the militia, with more vigor than the rest, should assume the control of affairs. It is such times of need which make leaders. This man was Jacob Leisler, who was willing to do no end of work and face a great deal of danger. The council would do nothing although the disposition of the colony grew steadily worse. Leisler saw the full danger, and when it came his turn to guard the fort with his company, he called all the trained bands together and made them sign a declaration by which they said that they held the fort for William and Mary, and would protect the Protestant religion. The council,

frightened at the threatening look of things, dispersed, some of the members going to Connecticut and others to Albany. Leisler, a merchant by trade, and a man of little education, was left in the entire control of affairs. He called a convention, at which he was appointed captain of the fort, and the delegates made themselves into a committee of safety. At the very outset Leisler was called upon to deal with some very serious matters.

King James had fled to France, and was the guest there of Louis XIV. Louis sent word to Frontenac, who was then Governor of Canada, that he should take it upon himself to search among the inhabitants of New York, and to send all French Protestants to France. The English Protestants were to be exported to New England, France or other places. The French Catholics were to be unmolested in their homes. Enough artisans and farmers to provide for the colony were to be left as slaves. Frontenac was not slow to obey the orders for invasion.

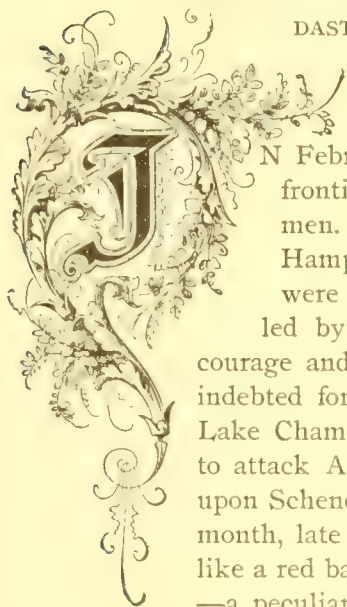
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Noah Brooks' "In Leisler's Time."

CHAPTER XXXII.

Frontenac the Fighter.

FRONTENAC'S ATTACK UPON NEW YORK—THE MASSACRE AT SCHENECTADY—NEW YORK IS FORTIFIED BY LEISLER—SLOUGHTER IS SENT TO SUPERSEDE HIM—LEISLER'S DEFENSE GETS HIM INTO TROUBLE—THE GOVERNOR'S DASTARDLY TAKING OFF.



ON February, 1669, Frontenac marched down to the frontier. He had three war parties of chosen men. One was to attack Albany, one New Hampshire and one Maine. A part of the men were Christian Iroquois. All three parties were led by LeMoynes, a young French gentleman of courage and spirit, to whose family France was greatly indebted for services in the New World. They crossed Lake Champlain on the ice. The Indians were afraid to attack Albany, and compelled the French to march upon Schenectady. They did so on the eighth of the month, late in the evening. The sun had rolled down like a red ball along the curve of the southern mountain—a peculiar effect, which, perhaps, cannot be seen anywhere else in the world. About it, even the Indians had poetic legends. There had been a festival at the village, but it ended early, as all gayeties did in those days, and everyone was in bed sleeping as the double line of warriors approached the palisaded town. There were no sentinels at the gate; instead there stood two gigantic snow figures, put up there by the boys and girls in jocund mockery of danger. One whoop from the Indians, and the men fell to work. In two hours sixty persons were killed, and eighty or ninety taken prisoners. Some ran through the snow and storm to Albany, but they were few. The village was burned. The commander at Albany saw that there was immediate need of reinforcement. Albany was the only town in New

York which had not admitted Leisler's government, but now she was forced to do so, and Leisler set to work to provide her with the men and supplies. Leisler asked all the other colonies to send delegates for the purpose of forming an expedition against the French. Seven delegates attended the first colonial congress, which met on May 1, 1690. All of these seven men will be mentioned again in history, so it is well to remember their names. They were Stoughton, Sewall, Gold, Pitkin, Walley, Leisler and De la Noye. It was agreed that Leisler should appoint the commander; that New York should provide four hundred men, Massachusetts one hundred and sixty, Connecticut one hundred and thirty-five, Plymouth sixty, and Maryland one hundred.

Leisler hastened to rebuild the fortifications of New York. He captured some French cruisers at sea, which were of considerable force to use at his need. The year was a busy and stirring one. The times were turbulent. Leisler was a merchant by education, a leader and fighter by temperament, and kept everyone well at work. It goes without saying that he was heartily hated by the Catholics of the colony. They were not only the Catholics, but, as it chanced, the aristocrats of the place, for the Protestant movement was the movement of the people. When William found time to send over a royal Governor he found plenty of complaints awaiting his ear. This royal Governor was Colonel Henry Sloughter. But it was not he who first appeared at New York, but Richard Ingoldsby, captain of a company of grenadiers, who arrived in New York a few weeks before his Governor, because Sloughter had chosen to go by way of the Bermudas. Ingoldsby seems to have had a very high idea of his own position, and on entering the port and finding that Leisler was in command of the fort, he ordered him to surrender. Leisler treated Ingoldsby politely, gave him quarters for his troops, but told him that he would not deliver the fort to any save he who held a warrant from the King. Ingoldsby had the impertinence to fire upon the fort for several hours. Leisler was not the man to let a fire go unreturned. A number of soldiers were killed.

Several weeks passed, with Leisler still governing and Ingoldsby protesting, before Sloughter arrived. The friends of Leisler say that he sent two gentlemen immediately to congratulate the Governor upon his arrival and to offer him the fort and government, but that the Governor would not listen to them, and threw them into jail. But Colonel Sloughter always said that he sent Ingoldsby to demand the fort, and that Leisler said he would own no Governor without orders from the King directed to him. However it may be, Ingoldsby marched into the

fort. Leisler's men surrendered. Sloughter issued a warrant for the arrest of Leisler and his council. They were tried for treason and murder. Leisler and seven others were found guilty and sentenced to death, but all of them were reprieved until they should know what the King's pleasure was in the matter.

The Catholics, so long irritated by Protestant rule, saw that their time for revenge had come. They used all the influence which they could bring to bear against Leisler. The Protestants were terrified, especially when they remembered the tragedy of Schenectady, and inferred from that what Jesuit rule might mean in New York. They sent in petitions for Leisler's pardon, while on the other hand the Catholics pressed petitions upon the Governor, begging for Leisler's execution. But Sloughter refused to sign Leisler's death-warrant. The assembly and various of the rich Catholics of New York prepared a feast, to which Sloughter was invited. Wine was plentiful, and under its influence the Governor was got to sign the death-warrant. The eight prisoners were executed before the Governor had recovered from the effects of his drinking. Leisler's young son had the question of his father's guilt argued before a committee of the House of Lords at London, three years later, and the judgment of the New York government was reversed. It was judged that Leisler was neither guilty of treason nor of murder. The family of Leisler was given its honorable reputation, and also a sum of money, in return for the charges made upon his private property during the time of his government. Sloughter only ruled over New York for four months. He died suddenly, and it is not unlikely that the friends of Leisler saw a special providence in this.

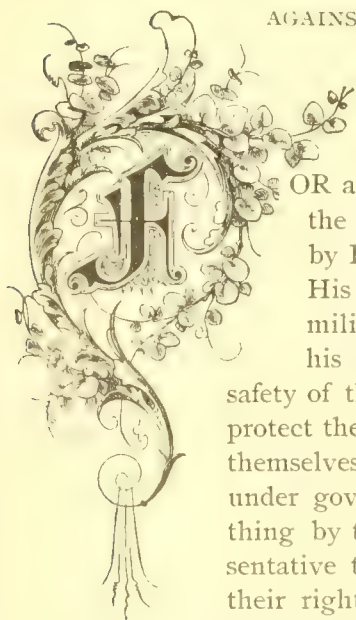
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY - Broadhead and O'Callaghan's "New York."

CHAPTER XXXIII.

The Pest of the Pirates.

THE RULE OF GOVERNOR FLETCHER—FLETCHER SUCCEEDED BY THE
EARL OF BELLOMONT—THE COMMISSION OF CAPTAIN KIDD,
AND HOW IT WAS CARRIED OUT—LORD CORNBURY
BECOMES GOVERNOR—THE EXPEDITIONS
AGAINST PORT ROYAL AND
QUEBEC.



FOR a short time Captain Ingoldsby attended to the duties of governorship, but was relieved by Benjamin Fletcher, Governor for the King. His commission gave him command of the militia of the New England colonies as well as his own. It was thought necessary for the safety of the colonies to have a general commander to protect them from the Indians. The colonies believed themselves to be independent, and certainly were under governors of their own, if one could tell anything by their charters. Connecticut sent a representative to England to complain of the violation of their rights under the charter. Rhode Island also sent an agent to protest to the King. While these men were in England, Fletcher came to Hartford and ordered the militia under arms. Governor Treat refused to let Fletcher assume command of his troops, but the militia was permitted to muster at Hartford. Fletcher ordered his commission and instructions to be read to the troops. In command at the front was Captain Wadsworth, and as soon as the reading began he cried, "Beat the drums!" and all the sturdy Puritan drummers fell to raising such a noise that the voice of the reader was entirely drowned. The more the Governor shouted for silence the louder the hot-headed Wadsworth shouted for them to drum, until finally the Governor had to yield, leaving Treat in command.

Fletcher sold licenses to privateers and pirates, and under his rule New York and the surrounding islands gained the reputation of being a nest of pirates.

In the north, Frontenac was still active. The Mohawks had been won to the side of the English, and three years after the massacre of Schenectady the French took three of the Mohawk towns. Major Schuyler, of Albany, was sent hurriedly after the French. In a few days he had overtaken them. They had three engagements, in which the French were repulsed each time. Then came a terrible fall of snow, and, hungry and cold, the troops on both sides were forced to retire to their rude fortifications. On both sides were Indian allies. The Indians had a dislike for the Christian mode of warfare, and always shrank from open attack. For this reason they delayed the action constantly, first the French, then the English allies refusing to move. It was on this account that the French finally escaped by the floating ice on the Hudson, and got out of Schuyler's reach. Frontenac's party, suffering for food, straggled back in small parties to Canada.

Fletcher had shown such greed and dishonesty in his administration that he was deposed from office, and the Earl of Bellomont put in his place. It was found by this time that the southern colonies could not be dealt with easily, and that their rights could not be disposed of without protest. The experiment which had failed with Fletcher was not tried with Bellomont. He was appointed Governor of New York and Massachusetts, but only Captain-General over the military forces of Connecticut, Rhode Island and the Jerseys. One of the first things which Bellomont did was to get from the New York assembly an acknowledgment of the error under which Leisler was condemned, and he had his body taken up from the private ground and reburied with public state in the Dutch church. His vigorous action gave strength to the Protestant party and the promise of a fair and determined administration.

Honest commerce had been almost choked under Fletcher's rule, and it was Bellomont's ambition to get rid of that class of French seamen who, under the excuse of war commissions, seized upon every ship whose cargo tempted them. These rovers made a journey upon the sea a thing of risk and terror to peaceable people. One of this class was Captain Kidd. This valorous but unfortunate personage, about whom so much has been written and told, was the friend of great men. One of Bellomont's methods for getting rid of the pirates was to send out a ship, at the expense of a joint stock company, for the purpose

of capturing pirate vessels. A number of great noblemen, and the King himself, were to receive parts of the profits of the adventure. Bellomont and his friends provided a ship for Kidd's use, paying four-fifths of the cost. The rest was paid by Kidd. The crew was not to take more than one-fourth of the prizes captured. If nothing was taken, Kidd was to return the cost of the galley before March 1, 1697. Kidd's previous reputation had not been particularly bad. He was a sea rover, and even then was known as a man of unusual adventure and daring. For this very reason he was thought a fit commander for the one hundred and fifty lawless men put under his charge.

At that time Madagascar was a great resort for pirates. There they lived in barbaric splendor, in a manner not unsuggestive of the marvels of Monte Cristo. The first time Kidd was heard of he was living among these sumptuous outlaws. It seems that he had been unable to capture any of the pirates whom he had been sent out for, and had gone to Madagascar in the hope that he might fall in with some better luck. After a time he took to the sea again, and went as far as India, but meeting none of the vessels which he was authorized to overhaul, he finally preyed upon merchant vessels for his own benefit. For several years he followed this adventurous life, and in 1699 sailed unconcernedly into the New York harbor. Bellomont did not arrest him, because Kidd assured him that he could prove his innocence of the crimes of which he was accused, and he was allowed to go to Boston. There, however, he was arrested. He was thrown into jail, and tried to get out by telling of forty thousand pounds of treasure which was hidden in the West Indies, and which would be lost unless he himself went for it. Kidd was sent to England, where he lay in prison for a year. The Tories were determined that he should be convicted, since he had been the friend of the famous Whigs, and of Bellomont, the Governor. He was tried and convicted of the murder of a gunner whom he had accidentally killed in a brawl. And so Captain Kidd, the daring rover, was hanged. He was more famous than many better men, and it will be long before the youths of this country and England have ceased to feel interested in his daring exploits.

When Lord Bellomont died, in 1701, Lord Cornbury, a cousin of Queen Anne, who, a year later, came to the throne, was appointed Governor. Truth to tell, it was only by quitting the country that he could escape being imprisoned for debt. He was a very worthless man, given up to drink and debauchery of all kinds, and the only interest that he took in his new office came from the hope that he might rapidly

enrich himself. This year (1702) a dreadful yellow fever epidemic broke out in New York, which carried off more than five hundred within ten weeks. Cornbury was so unscrupulous that he did not even take pains to conceal his greed. He gathered large sums of money for the purpose of building a fortification at the Narrows, and then calmly kept the money for his own use. After this the assembly insisted upon giving all the money for public purposes into the hands of a treasurer of their own. The Governor immediately appealed to the crown, protesting against the insult to himself, but the crown refused to take his part. He was a fierce religionist, for all of his bad ways, and showed as great a lack of scruple in the matters relating to the church as in other affairs. One story which is told of him illustrates clearly the temper of the man. When the yellow fever was so bad in New York, he went to a town upon Long Island until it should be over. The Presbyterian minister there had the best house in town, and he courteously yielded this to the Governor to use during his stay. When the Governor no longer needed it he handed it over to a few representatives of the Established Church of England, who lived at the place, and said that the ground attached could be leased for the support of their church. He persecuted the Presbyterians throughout the colony, and would not allow a school teacher or clergyman to teach or preach except by a special license.

Down in Massachusetts the royal Governor, Dudley, was making matters disagreeable, and continually fighting the charter governments. But there was a strong element in the colonies now which could not easily be crushed. The popular party had some brilliant men in it who were neither afraid to speak nor to suffer, and the arrogant governors knew they could go but so far. Everything which Cornbury did was disagreeable to the simple and industrious colonists. For one thing, he dressed like a woman, in great splendor, saying that it was proper that he should be so clothed to more fittingly represent his sovereign mistress, the Queen. He insulted the Quakers, who were no longer the wild and ill-advised creatures who had shocked the Boston meetings, but grave and dignified citizens. The people appealed to the Queen for protection, and Cornbury was recalled. He was arrested for debt and thrown in jail, where he remained until he became Earl of Clarendon, through the death of his father. Lord Lovelace was appointed Governor, but died in a short time. At this time New York was intending to send an expedition against Canada, and as the treasury was empty, issued bills of credit, the first ever put out by New York.

But the English fleet was routed, and it was necessary to think of other means for subduing the French province.

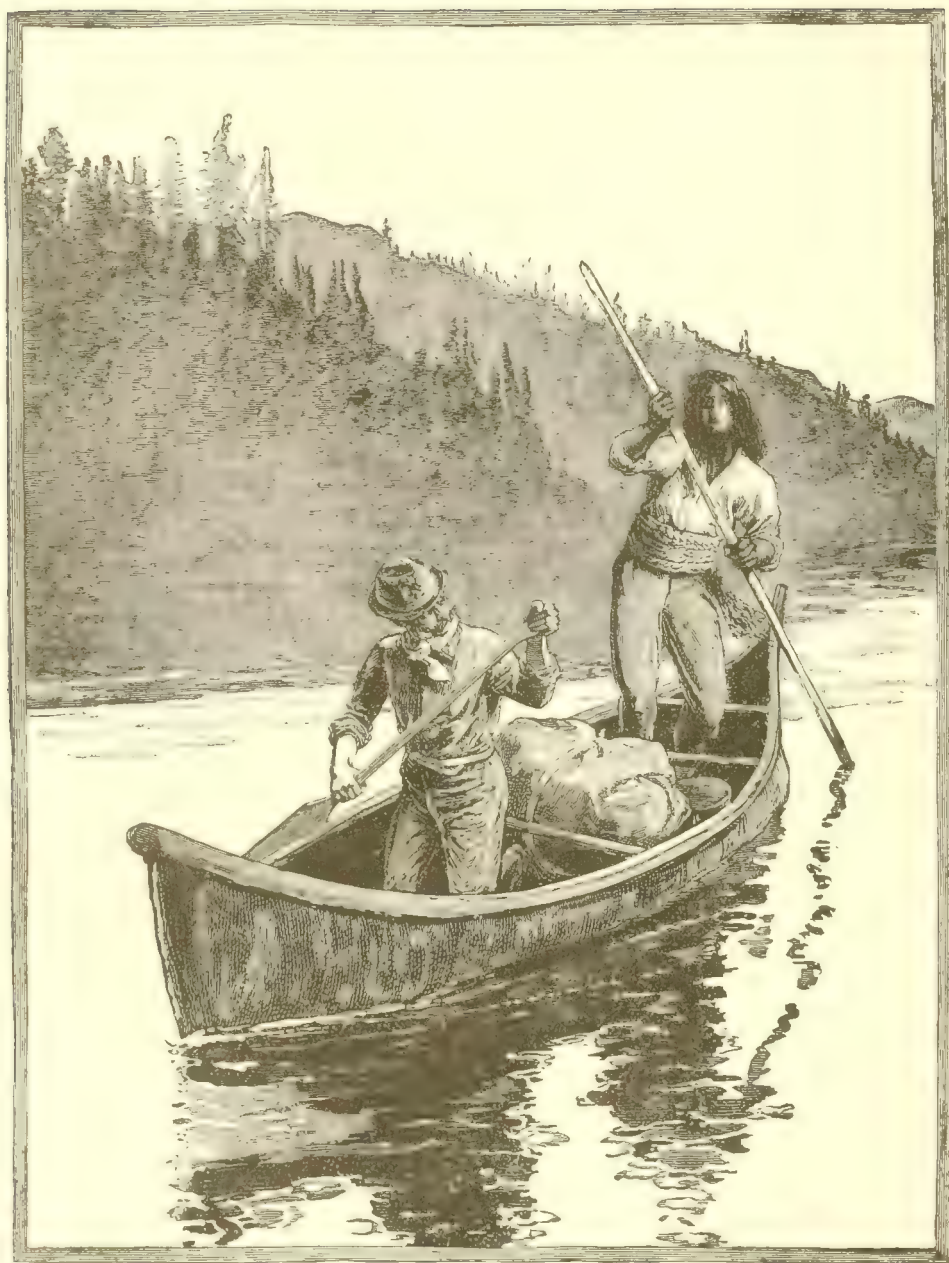
At this time the five nations were the friends of the English, and it was thought best to take advantage of their fickle friendship. Schuyler, with five Indian chiefs, was sent to England to beg for help in the conquest of the French. He was given ships and men for an expedition, and joined with the New England men in the taking of Port Royal. Robert Hunter had succeeded Lord Lovelace as Governor of New York. He was in favor of pushing the war against the French. The New England people had received most of the credit of the capture of Port Royal, and the New Yorkers were anxious to do something as brilliant. The fleet was a large one. There were sixteen men-of-war and twenty transports, which started in the summer of 1711, under Sir Hovenden Walker, for the attack upon Quebec. Altogether there were seven thousand men. But the fleet had only sailed ten leagues up the St. Lawrence, when ten or eleven of the ships drifted upon the rocks, and one thousand men were drowned. Meanwhile, a detachment had marched from Albany to attack Montreal. Hearing of the disaster to the ships, those troops fell back. England won nothing, but the French were much alarmed.

In 1719 Hunter retired, and Burnet took his place. He was devoted to the interests of the people, but was not popular. He conceived a new plan for the conquest of the French. Most of the Canadian supplies were got from Albany, and he proposed to prohibit all trade between his own province and Canada, but this did not please the tradesmen, although it did the assembly. Few merchants care enough for national independence to see their trade decrease. The trade with Canada was carried on as if the Governor had not prohibited it. In the face of this opposition the Governor was not able to keep his temper, and did some ill-advised things. In 1727 he was removed and transferred to Massachusetts Bay. He was fonder of writing works on the Bible than governing, perhaps, and would no doubt have succeeded better as a private citizen than as a leader of men. The next Governor died shortly after his arrival, and Rip Van Dam, the eldest member of the council, acted as Governor until Colonel Cosby arrived, in 1732, to take the head of the colony.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Parkman's "Frontenac"

FICTION—J. H. Ingraham's "Captain Kyd."

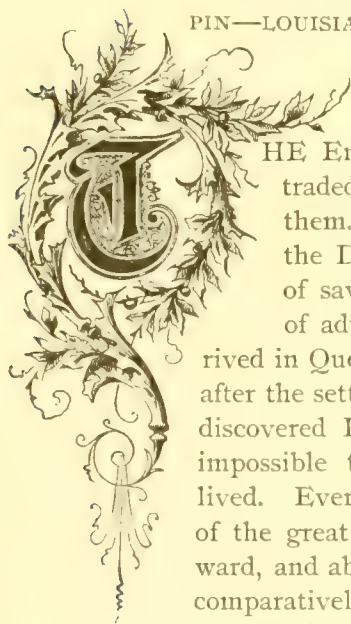


SCENE ON THE ST. LAWRENCE RIVER.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

The Holy Voyageurs.

THE FRENCH AND THE DISCOVERIES IN THE NORTHWEST—FATHERS
JOLIET AND MARQUETTE DISCOVER THE SOURCE OF THE MIS-
SISSIPPI AND SAIL DOWN THE RIVER—DEATH OF MAR-
QUETTE—THE EXPEDITION OF LASALLE AND HENNE-
PIN—LOUISIANA DISCOVERED AND NAMED.



THE English treated with the Indians, the Dutch traded with them, and the French lived with them. More imaginative than the English or the Dutch, they saw at once the picturesqueness of savage life, and appreciated the wild delights of adventure and discovery. Champlain had arrived in Quebec on July 3, 1608. This was only a year after the settlement in Jamestown. Four years later he discovered Lake Ontario and Lake Nipissing. It was impossible to content that gallant explorer while he lived. Ever restless, he went from one point to another of the great unknown continent which stretched westward, and about which the English seemed to have had comparatively little curiosity. There grew up in Quebec a race of men half Indian in habit, who preferred the wilderness to civilization. They were absolutely fearless, good fighters, capable of endurance, fleet of foot, excellent hunters, and sincere Catholics. They carried the cross of Christ in one hand and their muskets in the other, so to speak. The jaunty songs of these voyageurs made the wilderness ring. Jean Nicolle was one of these men, who went as far west as what we know as Wisconsin.

In the year 1640 the Fathers Chaumonot and Brebœuf coasted along the northern shore of the State of Ohio, through the fair chain of waters by Detroit, and up the eastern shores of Michigan as far as the Straits of Macinac. Fourteen years later, two young traders went

far west upon Lake Superior, and heard there of the great tribe of Sioux. When these traders returned to Montreal, in 1660, with sixteen canoes packed with furs, they excited great interest in the city, and quickened the love of adventure which already existed among the Frenchmen. The French had had many unhappy experiences with the Indians. The latter could not understand the mysticism of the Frenchman's religion; in his burning tapers, his altars, robes and crucifix, they saw the symbols of superstition, and thought the Frenchmen must be the familiars of evil spirits. The French who had ventured to settle near Onondaga for the purpose of converting the Indians there, had been glad to escape with their lives. Father Jogues had been treacherously murdered, in 1646, by the Mohawks, in the Mohawk valley, simply because of the fear which his missal and altar produced. But undismayed by such catastrophes the zealous Jesuits continued to establish new missions.

In the summer of 1660 Father Mesnard founded a mission on a point of the southern shore of Lake Superior, known then and now as Chagwamegan. He lost his life in some mysterious way, and in 1665 Father Allouez took up the mission there, preaching in the Algonquin language to twelve or fifteen different tribes. Even the Sioux heard of him, and it was through them that he heard first of the Mississippi. In 1669 Father Aloney, with Father Dablon, went as far as the Fox river, learning from the Indians not a little about the geography of the country.

But the more thorough enterprise began when Jean Talon was appointed overseer of the trade of Canada. He called a council of Indians at the fort of Lake Superior, in 1671. An adventurer who knew the language and customs of the Indians was there, and representatives of Louis XIV. Chiefs of tribes from Hudson Bay and the head of Lake Superior and Lake Michigan were there. A cross was erected to which the arms of France was fastened, and possession was taken in the name of the French crown, and the chiefs promised to be loyal to the great King of France. Under this guarantee of friendship, Louis Joliet and Father Marquette started on an expedition in 1673. They discovered the source of the Mississippi, and went as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas. Father Marquette was a delightful writer, and left an account of his travels, full of romance and piety. The Indians everywhere were friendly, and the travelers even saw at one village a cross erected and adorned, which showed that the religion of the Jesuits was creeping among the tribes. With two Indian guides,

they were shown the passage from the Fox to the Wisconsin river, and from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi river. Down this wild river, many hundred leagues from their own countrymen, the two peaceful but courageous Frenchmen floated, seeing little life besides great herds of buffaloes. They slept in their canoes at night for fear of being surprised. It was a good many days before they found any traces of men. Following up a trail which they had discovered, they came upon a party of Illinois Indians. These Indians were more demonstrative than those of the east. They indulged more in ceremonials, and had a more complex religion, at least so one must believe from the accounts left of them, though the difference may have lain largely in the fact that the Frenchmen were appreciative.

The chief of the Illinois village came forth from his wigwam, naked, to welcome Joliet and Marquette, raising his hands to the sun. About him danced other braves, with the red calumet, or pipe of peace, in their hands. They were invited to visit the Indian village, where they were given a feast and led in a sort of triumphal procession to see the town. The people went with them to their canoes, with every expression of pleasure and courtesy which they could give.

Soon after this the explorers saw the painted rocks, so famous afterward. These were rocks on which the Indians had painted, in a way which Marquette protested to be as good as anything that could be done in France. They were ruthlessly destroyed by quarrying, in the present century. They then struck the great, muddy flow of the Missouri, staining the blue Mississippi with its repulsive streak. Marquette hoped that he might reach the Gulf of California, of which the Spaniards had given such glowing accounts. Marquette saw iron mines up the Ohio river near its meeting with the Mississippi, which showed that the French traders had already been as far as that point. They met with Indians who had guns, powder, knives, hatchets and cloth, which they had got from the Europeans on the eastern coast. Again and again the calumet saved Marquette and his friend from attack by the Indians, and at length, fearing that they might fall into the hands of the Spaniards, they turned northward again.

When they reached the Illinois river they followed the course of that stream and made a portage into Lake Michigan. "We have seen nothing equal to this river for the goodness of the land," said Marquette. "The prairies, wood, cattle, deer, goats, bustards, swans, ducks, parquets, and even beaver, abound here. There are many little lakes and little rivers." They had started in June, and by September were back

to the French mission at Green Bay. Marquette lived for two years among the Miami Indians. His death is very touching. The gentle old man was making his way in his canoe to Macinac, in 1675, and stopped on the eastern shore of Lake Michigan to raise an altar and celebrate the mass. He seemed unaccountably sad, and asked his companions to leave him alone a little while. They did so, and when they came to him, found him dead.

When Joliet reached Montreal with his story of the expedition, Robert Cavalier de La Salle, a Norman gentleman who had established a trading post at Lachine, not far from Montreal, felt that the time for an expedition had come. Frontenac gave La Salle letters of introduction at court, and he succeeded in getting all he asked for. With thirty men, plenty of stores and tools, he marched to Lake Ontario, made the portage by Niagara Falls to Lake Erie, and at Port Frontenac built a ship of forty-five tons. He named it the *Griffin*. She was armed with seven cannons, and well built, considering the disadvantages of her construction. She sailed westward in 1679, reaching the settlement of Green Bay in September. The *Griffin* was freighted with fur, and La Salle, with some of his men, walked to St. Joseph, at the head of Lake Michigan, nearly opposite the river Chicago. Here he waited for the *Griffin*, but it never appeared. Depressed, but determined, he pushed westward, and established in the present La Salle county, in Illinois, Fort Creve-Cœur. La Salle sent Father Hennepin to trace the Illinois to the mouth, which he did, and then went up the Mississippi as far as the falls of St. Antony. He was taken prisoner by the Sioux. They allowed him to return to his own country, with the promise that he would visit them the next year.

La Salle decided to return to Niagara, and left Henri de Tonty in charge at Creve-Cœur. The Iroquois Indians drove Tonty and his men from the fort, and as he hurried down the west side of Lake Michigan, La Salle came up the east side with reinforcements. Bitterly disappointed at finding the fort deserted, La Salle returned to Montreal, where he succeeded in making arrangements with his creditors—for the loss of the *Griffin* had seriously embarrassed him—for another expedition. La Salle sailed in 1681, with twenty-three Frenchmen and eighteen Indians. The Indians took with them ten of their wives. With the party were the Chevalier Henri de Tonty, Father Zenobe, and Dautray, the son of the Procureur General of Quebec. These crossed the lake to the Chicago river, and it may interest the thousands who daily pass over that torpid and ill-smelling stream to know that they named it the

"Divine River." They stopped for a time upon the present site of Chicago, and then went on to the mouth of the Illinois. La Salle went on down the river as fast as the ice would permit him. On each side lay the shores, snow-clad; the trees glittering through the long, quiet nights with fairy frost. The stillness was absolute. It was not until they had sailed forty-five leagues that they heard the sounds of men. La Salle knew they had been seen by the savages, and thought it best to build a fort. He sent the calumet of peace to the Indian chiefs, and established pleasant relations immediately. He speaks particularly of the gayety of these southern Indians as compared with the severe and sombre natives of the north. He left a cross there with St. Louis' arms, and upon his return found that the Indians had surrounded it with a palisade that it might not be harmed. Next he passed the village of the Arkansas, where a superior people lived, with well-built houses, having roofs of canes, fixed so as to form a dome. They were ornamented with barbaric but effective paintings. They had furniture, also, and understood the making of cloth. Next they came across the Natchez Indians, and passing them, pushed on in the hope of finding the sea. At last the water of the river tasted salt. A little further on and it became saltier. A little further yet and they looked upon the sea. Planting the cross, with the arms of France, they took possession of the mouth of the Mississippi in the name of King Louis. The expedition made its way back slowly, La Salle suffering from severe illness. The report of his great discovery was sent to France, and finally La Salle himself crossed to confer with King Louis. He was given power for the colonization of Louisiana. Louisiana, as La Salle named the territory for the King, included the present State of Louisiana and all the territory north of the line of Texas and west of the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains.

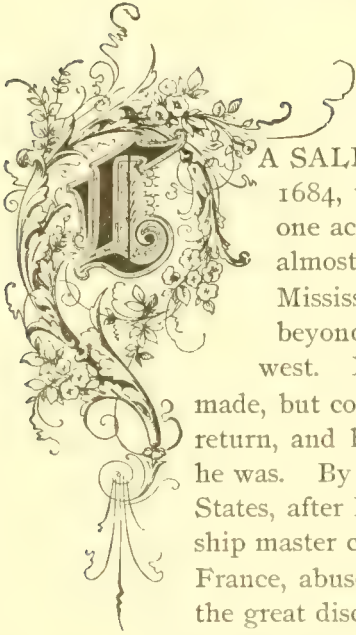
FOR FURTHER READING

HISTORY - Parkman's "France and England in North America"
"La Salle's Discovery of the Great West."

CHAPTER XXXV.

The Chevalier La Salle.

LA SALLE LANDS ON THE SHORE OF TEXAS—HE IS MURDERED—THE HUT
IN THE WILDERNESS—THE EXPEDITION OF D'IBERVILLE—THE
SETTLEMENT OF NEW ORLEANS, AND THE MISSISSIPPI
—SCHEME OF JOHN LAW—THE MASSACRE OF
CHOPART—BIENVILLE'S ILL-FATED
EXPEDITION AGAINST THE
CHICKASAWS.



LA SALLE set sail from France on the 24th of July, 1684, with four vessels and a fine equipment, but one accident after another delayed him, and it was almost a year before he neared the mouth of the Mississippi. Through a miscalculation he passed beyond the mouth of the river and landed farther west. La Salle was sure that a mistake had been made, but could not induce the captain of the fleet to return, and had no choice but to land his goods where he was. By this accident Texas was first of the Gulf States, after Florida, to be settled by Europeans. The ship master cruelly deserted La Salle, and returning to France, abused the ear of the King with stories about the great discoverer, which so injured him in the esteem of the court that no relief was sent to him—relief which he was in great need of. Fortunately the Indians were gentle and hospitable, and helped to supply the wretched little colony with food. La Salle spent his time in unavailing searches for the Mississippi, which came to seem to him at last like some mythical stream, having no existence.

It was on one of these journeys that the gallant and unfortunate explorer met his death. He left the post in charge of twenty of his

colonists, and taking as many more with him, started out with no guide but a compass and no protection from savages, except that furnished by a few arms and his conciliatory policy. They had been out about three months, when La Salle sent out a party in search of some supplies which had been left upon a previous journey. This party killed two buffaloes and sent back for horses to bring the meat to camp.

La Salle's young nephew, Morangetand, and two others, went with the horses. Morangetand flew into a passion because the hunters had set apart a portion of the meat for themselves. This the law of hunting clearly entitled them to, but Morangetand was a hot-headed young fellow, who had the pride of La Salle without his gentleness.

The hunters laid a plot for the killing of Morangetand and two faithful servants who were with him. This they did at night while the men were sleeping. The hunters lacked the courage to meet La Salle, and lingered so long that the Chevalier grew anxious, and calling a friar for company, walked in search of them. There is a tradition that as he went a great sadness came over him. He talked of his successes as if they were things of the past, and all the philosophy of the gentle friar was not able to arouse him from this melancholy mood. As he neared the place where he knew the hunters to be, he fired his pistol to let them know of his approach, and they crossed the river to meet him. He asked where his nephew was, and was answered insolently. La Salle rebuked him, and the hunter fired, shooting him through the brain. He was only forty-six years old, and in all his able life was never more full of vigor and enterprise. Had he lived, the history of the Mississippi valley would have been very different.

There was a quarrel among the murderers, in which the man who fired the fatal shot was himself killed. The rest of the colony were eager to get out of the wilderness as soon as they could. The good friar and four others decided to push toward Canada, and mounting their horses, bade their friends farewell. What became of those who remained at the colony is not known. The friar and his friends, journeying northward, came suddenly upon a cottage built in the French style. Near it stood a cross. The bewildering effect of such a sight in the heart of the wilderness can be imagined. It was the dwelling of two of Henri de Tonty's men, Charpentier and De Launay, who had been left on the banks of the Mississippi two years before. Here one of the friar's friends remained. These three Frenchmen were the only living souls left to mark the adventures of the French in the valley of the Mississippi—Louisiana, the French called it.

It was ten years after La Salle's death before France made any strong effort to renew the colonization of the Mississippi valley. Sicur Lemoyne d'Iberville, son of the distinguished Baron Longueuil, of Canada, was then given the command of an expedition fitted out by the King for the planting of a colony. Baron Longueuil had eleven sons, not to mention numerous young kinsmen, all of whom were men of spirit. Many of them were concerned in the fierce fights of the French and English at the north. D'Iberville had two frigates under his charge when he left France, and the three vessels joined him at Saint Domingo. This was in 1699. With him was that same friar who was the friend of La Salle in that ill-fated colony, St. Louis. He it was who pointed out to d'Iberville the strong, turbid flow of the Mississippi, staining the blue gulf. Up the river they found Indians who had cloaks which La Salle had given them, and a breviary which the friar had left in 1682. The boats were moved from Biloxi Island to the Mobile Bay, on d'Iberville's first journey. The second time he came, he found a point on the Mississippi river about thirty-eight miles below the present city of New Orleans. This settlement, established in 1700, was the first really made in Louisiana, as we know the State now. That on the Mobile Bay was abandoned in a short time and re-established on the Mobile river. By this time communication was established between Canada and the settlements of Louisiana, by way of the great river, Lake Erie, and the Miami Portage. About this time an Englishman by the name of Coxe sent out an expedition to explore and take possession of the Mississippi, under a charter given to Coxe by Charles II for the territory west of Florida. This expedition was met by one of the Frenchmen, Bienville, the brother of d'Iberville, and when inquiry was made concerning the situation of the Mississippi, Bienville, with a Frenchman's calm and polite exterior, told him that it was farther west. The Englishman turned into that dismal country where La Salle had wandered so long. He who rides down the Mississippi may still know the place where the Englishmen went into the wilderness, by the name of "English Turn." Fortunately for the little French colony, Spain and France were in alliance at this period, and the Spanish governors of Mexico and Florida were willing to give such help as they could. The King granted the whole territory to Antoine Crozat. Crozat appointed as his Governor, Cadillac, a soldier, who came to the colony in May, 1713. It was but natural that Bienville, who had done so much practical work there—for his brother, d'Iberville, was now dead—should resent the coming of the new officials. Their

quarrels were the beginning of parties, which lasted for many years. Cadillac was a determined explorer, and sent an expedition into Texas which had much to do with the early history of that State. When he returned to France, in two years from the time of his coming, M. de L'Épiany was appointed Governor in his stead. But Louisiana was to have a success which no half-way colonial enthusiasm could make. With the death of Louis the Magnificent, in 1715, began the reign of the Regent, Duke of Orleans, and with him there came into power in France a company of determined financiers, unscrupulous men, who tried to avert the bankruptcy of the kingdom. Foremost among these men was John Law, an Englishman, who was already noted for daring business schemes, and who had laid out a plan for a national bank which was far superior to anything of that day. France was terribly in debt, and John Law proposed a bank discount which was to issue bills redeemable in coin on merchants' notes. The Duke of Orleans was the patron of this bank. Law asked and obtained Crozat's privileges to the Mississippi trade, and formed a company which united the commerce of Louisiana and the fur trade of Canada. This was called the Western Company, and grants were given to it for twenty-five years. It had a nominal capital of 100,000,000 livres—an actual capital of about 40,000,000 livres. Unsubstantial as the actual value of this property was, and as Louis must have known it to have been, it nevertheless satisfied the depressed merchants of France. Law worked hard; he had troops sent over as well as vessels of colonists. Bienville was once more made Governor-General of Louisiana. He selected New Orleans for the capital, and in February, 1718, left fifty persons to secure the loan and begin the building of houses. Vessels brought large parties of colonists here the following years.

John Law's scheme seemed to succeed, and in 1719 he so gained the confidence of merchants, that he was able to join with the East India Company of France. The name of the corporation was changed to the Indian Company. New shares were now issued at a par of 500 livres, and no one was allowed to take any new shares who had not four old ones to show. For the first time for many years France found herself in a seemingly prosperous condition. John Law's scheme did not show its hollowness, until at length the actual value of the bonds were put to test. The Indian Company would not even accept their own shares as collateral for the purchase of new shares. It goes without saying that no one else would accept them in exchange for things of actual value. All that vast stretch of land by the Mississippi, valuable enough to

form the basis of a nation, had no value then, lying uncultivated and uninhabited. Among other serious mistakes, France had made that of sending adventurers and fortune-hunters, instead of industrious peasants, to Louisiana.

The great bubble burst in 1770. Law was protected from the consequences of his fatal scheme by becoming a Roman Catholic and securing an appointment as minister. The valley of the Mississippi ceased to be of great commercial interest to France, and was left to the quiet attendance of the Jesuit missionaries; John Law's scheme had brought to Louisiana several hundred colonists and had not been so unfortunate an affair as might been expected from its magnitude and its false basis. The Germans whom Law had brought over had been deserted by him, but their habits of hard work and their love of nature had been their preservation. There still exist above New Orleans, on the German coast, luxurious farms and homes, built by these exiles and sustained by their descendants.

The French settlement at Natchez was the most prosperous of the trading posts upon the river. The Natchez Indians were a very interesting tribe, not lacking in some good form of government. Like all of the rest of the southern Indians, they had imagination and warmth of temperament. They were sun-worshippers. Their chief was called Brother of the Sun. The temple in which he worshiped was built in the shape of a dome, with walls of smooth clay. Three wooden eagles, one red, another white, and the third yellow, perched above it. Mats of braided straw were placed upon the top to furnish protection from the rain. Around it was a palisade, in which were placed the skulls the Natchez had brought back from battle. The palace of the chief was not unlike the temple. It was built upon an artificial hill, so that the first rays of the sun might awaken the chief, for the door fronted the east. With many wild howls to the sun, he lighted his calumet and devoted his first puffs to his mighty kinsman. He then directed his course through the heavens by moving his hands from the east to the west. The royal descent was traced through the female line. The royal princesses were allowed to marry none but men of low family. It was their sons who succeeded to the throne, and as soon as an heir presumptive was born, a number of infants nearest his age were selected to be his guard. All through his life he was taken care of by these servants, who hunted for him and farmed for him, and when he died, permitted themselves to be strangled, that they might continue to serve him in another world. All this is described by Charlevoix, who left

Canada in 1720 to visit the Canadian missions, and stopped at Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, the oldest settlement in that State. Going down the river in a canoe made from a large walnut tree, he visited the German coast, New Orleans and Natchez. Charlevoix says that the Natchez Indians had decreased rapidly in number, and that in six years they had lost two thousand fighting men.

The commander of the fort at Natchez, in 1729, was Chopart, a man both narrow and selfish. He sent to the Brother of the Sun and told him that the French wished the Natchez to leave the site of their beautiful village and give it up to the French. This the Natchez promptly refused to do. Chopart insisted that they must move away, within two months. Up to this time the Natchez had been friendly to the French, but they now made up their minds that they must get rid of them. They got the Choctaws to join in the plan, and little bunches of sticks were exchanged between the chiefs to indicate the number of days before that selected for the massacre, but unfortunately the little son of the Natchez chief saw his father burning the sticks in the temple, and after his father had left, burned two more which he added to the pack. This, of course, misled the Choctaw chief. When the day appointed by the Natchez came, they gave a dinner to Chopart. He ate and drank with them till 3 o'clock in the morning, and then returned to his home. In a little while the Brother of the Sun came out with his warriors, who bore the calumet high on a stick. They went to Chopart's house pretending they had come to bring him the tribute which he had told them he would exact if they did not move from the village in two months. Chopart, without dressing, opened the door and asked them to enter. At that time, in every house in the settlement were one or more Indians. Most of the chief's warriors went to the river, where a well-laden galley had just come from New Orleans. Every Indian picked out a man among those working on the galley, and firing, killed him. This was the signal for a general slaughter. In every house the Indians fell upon the settlers. Only one soldier escaped from the garrison. Some of the women were killed, but most of them were taken to be held as slaves. Two hundred Frenchmen were killed within an hour's time, Chopart among them.

Two days later the Choctaws, down by New Orleans, sent a delegation to the Brother of the Sun, and learned that the Natchez had already moved against the French. The Choctaws, not understanding the reason of the mistake in the day of the attack, turned all of their anger against the Natchez. Fugitives from the massacre began to arrive from

New Orleans and Perier. The commander of the fort there formed an army, in which the Choctaws joined, to move against the Natchez Indians. The Natchez Indians surrendered, leaving their town and moving up the Red river. The next summer Perier moved after them again. Once more they surrendered to him, and two hundred of them were sold as slaves to Saint Domingo. Three hundred escaped, and their descendants are living at this time upon the farms in the valleys of the Ouachita river.

The Western Company, hearing of the difficulties, represented its losses to the King, and he assumed the responsibility of it by making it a royal province. Bienville, who had been in France for some time, was again sent over as Governor-General in 1736. The first thing he did was to prepare an expedition to the remnant of the Natchez Indians. The Chickasaws at that time were allies of the Indian colony, and sure of their strength, refused to yield up the Natchez Indians, who were given to them for protection. Bienville sent word to the fort at Kaskaskia to meet him with as many men as he could muster on the 10th of May, in the Chickasaw country, so Bienville himself led out the army from New Orleans to Mobile, on sixty small craft. He was met by the Choctaws, his allies, and on the 24th began the building of a rude fort seven miles distant from the Chickasaw village. When they moved against the Chickasaw stockade they met with a heavy loss, and were obliged to retreat. They were much puzzled at seeing Europeans among the Chickasaw Indians. These they supposed to be Englishmen, but they were the Frenchmen from Kaskaskia, who had moved upon the day set by Bienville and had been taken prisoners. The Indian allies had forced the commander to attack, instead of allowing them to wait, as his judgment told him, for the reinforcement from New Orleans. After the retreat of Bienville on the 24th, this unfortunate commander and all of his followers were taken to a plain, tied to stakes, and burned to death. Bienville's warriors, who had been left upon the field over night, had their bodies cut to pieces and their heads stuck defiantly on the palisades of the Chickasaws.

Four years later, in 1740, Bienville led another expedition against the Chickasaws by way of the Mississippi river. He had heavy reinforcements from Fort Assumption, which was near the site of the present city of Memphis. The Chickasaws were alarmed, and offered to surrender all the white slaves in their possession on condition of peace. Bienville accepted the terms. After an absence of ten months the army returned to New Orleans. Fort Assumption was torn down, and no

other military post was put in its place for one hundred and twenty years. In 1741 Bienville returned to France.

Three years later than this there were but 1,700 white men, 1,500 women, and 2,020 slaves in the whole Mississippi valley, after thirty years of expensive colonization. Fifteen years later, when Louis XV had come to the throne, there was a falling off of these homes. For eight years after the return of Bienville to France, the Marquis de Vandreuil held the position of royal Governor. The colony was in constant alarm from fear of the English by sea and the Indians by land—alarm which was greater than the case called for. In 1751 the Marquis had two thousand soldiers under his orders and the expenses of the colony were entirely out of proportion to its comforts. It was the farmers, quietly working upon their plantations, who conquered the Mississippi valley and made it valuable. Cotton was being raised, gin and sugar manufactured, indigo cultivated, and the common vegetables and fruits raised for the personal use of the settlers. Already in Illinois wheat was becoming so successful a product that it was exported to the distant seaport. The mines of copper and lead were being developed in the Northwest, and silk and tobacco were being introduced.

Following, came the administration of Kerlerie, which lasted for ten years. At the end of that time he was thrown into the Bastile, accused with misappropriating money.

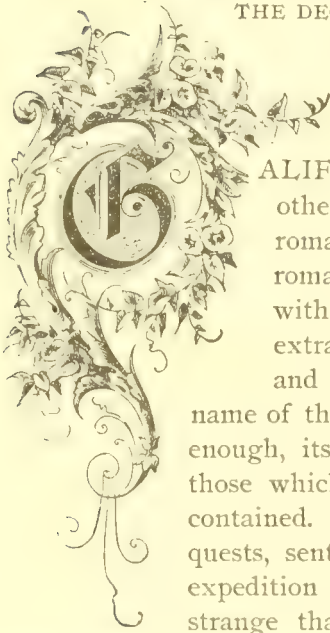
FOR FURTHER READING:

Parkman's "France and England in North America,"

CHAPTER XXXVI.

The Land of Gold.

CALIFORNIA—SPANISH EXPLORERS—THE JOURNEY OF SIR FRANCIS
DRAKE—THE COAST INDIANS—EXPEDITION OF ESPEJO—
OVERTHROW OF THE JESUITS—ONATE AND HIS
LABORS—THE MISSIONS AT THE SOUTH—
THE DECLINE OF SPAIN AND HER
COLONIES.



CALIFORNIA did not receive its name as the other States did. It took it from a certain fantastic romance, written by a Spanish author. This romance pictured an imaginary kingdom glittering with gold and diamonds, in which the most extraordinary events were constantly taking place, and where riches were free to everyone. The name of this remarkable land was California, and, oddly enough, its imaginary riches were hardly greater than those which the most western of our States actually contained. Cortez, always ambitious and eager for conquests, sent out Hernando Grijalva, in 1534, on an expedition of discovery to the Pacific coast. It is not strange that the Spaniards gave the name of the romance to a country whose charms are so great that the people marvel over them to-day as they did then. The methods of Grijalva were too languid to suit the nervous and impatient Cortez, and the following year, taking four hundred Spaniards and three hundred slaves with him, he himself embarked for California. Not only was he impatient for the conquest of this productive land, but was anxious to see if he could learn the fate of a small expedition which he had previously sent north by land. He had only well started on his journey of discovery, when he heard that his civil power had been taken from him and given to the Viceroy, Mendoza. His military position was all that was left him,

and he was obliged to return to Mexico, after coasting on both sides of the Gulf of California. Francisco de Ulloa was sent to take up the exploration. Pearls were found in the Gulf of California at the very first, and the pearl fishery that has continued to this day was systematically taken up then. Reports of the richness of this country excited the jealousy of Mendoza, the ruler of Mexico, and he determined to send out an explorer himself in the same direction that Ulloa had taken. The Spaniards were excited with the reports brought to them by the four men who had started with Narvaez from Florida. These men, it will be recollected, traveled alone from Florida to the Gulf of California. They brought tales of seven wonderful cities which contained castles built of gold, silver, turquoise and diamonds. Vasquez Coronado was the man chosen to go in search of these. It was not long before he reached the territory which the men had described as the "seven cities" but in them, alas! was found no gold, silver, diamonds nor turquoise. There were, however, very substantial buildings, three or four lofts high, with ladders leading from one story to another. The people wore cotton dresses and had taste in cookery. But Coronado was not after evidences of civilization, but in search of gold, and he pushed hastily on. Two years of disappointment followed, until at length the perplexed and disheartened Spaniard went mad, and his party returned to Mexico. Meantime, in 1543 a voyage was made northward along the coast, which laid open to the Spaniards a portion of California. This was under the charge of Cabrillo, who went as far north as Cape Mendosino. He found it too cold to go farther. From this point the Spanish fleets, for long years after, took their departure on their journey to the East Indies. Other Spanish voyagers made much the same trip, but none of them discovered a seaport in California.

This, Sir Francis Drake, the English seaman, who has been written of in the first chapters of this book, did. It will be remembered that he passed through the Straits of Magellan and came up the Pacific Ocean in 1578. One of his vessels was lost in a gale, the second deserted him, and he was left to make his voyage alone in the *Pelican*. His crew suffered terribly from the cold, on reaching forty-eight degrees north latitude, although it was in the month of June. He hurried away from this discouraging port and landed in a "goodly bay," which some identify with the beautiful Bay of San Francisco.

When the Indians heard of the arrival of the white men, they gathered in large numbers to see them, and the King, a man of

dignified stature, came, with a guard of a hundred braves, to welcome him. In front of the King marched a tall man carrying a sceptre of black wood a yard and a half long. Upon it hung two crowns, and dangling from these were chains of bone. Each link was a mark of honor. All of the Indians wore skins, and the King wore rabbit's skin—a mark of royal distinction. Their heads were decorated with feathers of rare birds. They entertained Drake with a long ceremony, ending in a dance, after which they asked the Englishman to be King of their country. The crown was set upon Drake's head, and all the chains of honor hung about his neck. Drake thought it wise to accept these honors in the spirit which they were given, and took the country in the name and for the use of Queen Elizabeth. It must not be forgotten that this was away back in 1579. Then followed a wild scene in which all the common people yelled and howled, and tore the skin from their faces with their nails, meaning to offer sacrifice to their new and mysterious Governor. Drake and his friends made a visit into the interior, where the Indian villages were. They found the country fruitful, filled with game and excellently adapted for settlement. Neither Drake nor his men would have objected to lingering longer among these friendly tribes in a land of such unusual beauty, but their disabled ship was repaired and there was need for hastening back with reports of the voyage. A monument was left in the port composed of a copper plate, fastened to a wooden post. Upon this plate was engraved the right of Queen Elizabeth to the kingdom, the Queen's picture and Drake's arms. The Indians mourned exceedingly when Drake left them, and built bright fires on the cliffs to cheer his departure over the waters.

In 1581, Augustine Reyes, a Franciscan Father, went northward and rediscovered the pleasant land of which Coronado had written, and was able to guess at the site of the "seven cities." Reyes started thither, with two brethren of his order and eight soldiers, for the purpose of making converts to the Catholic faith among the Indians. But one of the friars was killed by the Indians, and the soldiers, fearing for their safety, deserted, leaving the two friars to go on alone. When the soldiers passed Santa Barbara, they confessed the state they had left the unfortunate Fathers in, and aroused the indignation of Antonio de Espejo, who hurried to their relief with a caravan of fifteen horses and mules and some Indian guides. Espejo discovered many interesting tribes of Indians who had progressed in the arts and industries to an unusual extent. Some of them wore cotton garments, striped with

white and blue. Others understood the tanning of leather so well that the Spaniards held it to be as fine as anything done in Flanders. The great rivers and mighty forests, the mountains and the fruitful plains delighted them, but they were obliged to press on after the priests whom they were hurrying to succor. In the country which they named New Mexico, they found people dressed in cotton and leather, with good boots and shoes. At last they learned that the poor Franciscan Fathers had been killed, and Espejo devoted himself merely to exploration, leaving a large part of his company in camp near the Tiguas tribe of the "sixteen towns." He found idols in some of the houses; umbrellas decorated with the sun, moon and stars were in use by one tribe, and many had wrought the precious metals into forms of ornament. Especially interesting was the town of Acoma, which was inhabited by six thousand Indians. It was built on a high cliff, fifty platforms in height, and reached by steps cut out of the rock. The water was drawn from cisterns. Of course no crops could be raised upon the site of this rocky city. The farms lay two leagues away and were irrigated by artificial means.

Espejo at length visited the country which Coronado had entered half a century before. Here he found Christians and some baptized Indians, who understood the Spanish language. This was the great province of Zuni, which still holds its name and keeps the old customs as Espejo saw them in the last half of the sixteenth century. After journeying still farther, Espejo came to rich silver mines, but it is not known in what direction he journeyed. When Espejo rejoined his party he found most of them determined to return to Santa Barbara. He, with eight soldiers, concluded to explore the river Del Norte. It was two years before he ended his journeyings.

Until 1595 the great western territory remained undisturbed. Then the Count Monterey, at that time Viceroy of Mexico, and Juan de Onate went into New Mexico to plant colonies in the valley of the Rio Grande. Sante Fe, which was one of Onate's settlements, was founded before Jamestown, and is, therefore, next to St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States. This settlement had in its beginning one hundred soldiers and five hundred settlers, and the number continued to be about the same for a hundred years. Indian raids were not infrequent, and the people could offer but little resistance until 1692, when Diego de Barges established Spanish garrisons in the valley. El Paso, on the Mexican frontier, was one of Onate's settlements.

Farther west, on the ocean coast, Spain followed up the discoveries

of Drake. It is not necessary to mention each one of these. Spanish names were given to the coast, and Spain claimed it as her own, although she took but very languid interest in it. It was the Jesuits, anxious for the saving of souls, who finally settled upon the peninsula of California. Francisco Kino, a devoted brother of the Jesuit society, infused with a noble enthusiasm, undertook to Christianize the peninsula. A series of missions were founded by him, and in 1697 he succeeded in getting a mission built in lower California. On the west side of the gulf was Father Salvatierra, and on the east side Father Kino. These two men, both systematic and capable of clear leadership, constantly helped one another. The system of the Fathers was very complete. The Indians were taught the Spanish language, and were induced to attend religious services every day. Those who did so were supplied with rations. The sick, old and helpless were provided with food. All of the Indians were given coarse cloth, cloaks and blankets. The missionaries instructed them in the cultivation of their fields, but finding that the Indians would not harvest and preserve the crops, they themselves took care of them. Wine was one of the first products of California, but the Fathers soon found it was necessary to keep it from the Indians.

By the time that the missions had existed in California for a generation they were surrounded with a semi-civilized set of men and women who gave up the wild life of the forest for the more laborious and quiet one of the farms.

Lonely and desolate, the little missions stood out from the savagery of the villages. In them there were often but two Spaniards, a Father and a soldier. The missions were well built, with a touch of that Moorish architecture which the Spaniards had made their own. Not alone were the missions the schools, the churches and the depot for supplies, but they served for courts of justice as well, and any culprit was punished there according to the judgment of the Spaniards. The children were educated in reading, writing and singing, and many of them were sent to Soreto, the chief station. Such of these as showed unusual intelligence were made church-wardens at the various rancherios. One Father taught his Indians to spin wool and weave it, and he himself made the staffs, wheels and looms. This was opposed to the policy of Spain, which wished to force all her colonists to purchase manufactures direct from home. It was this same policy which kept the settlements of the Spaniards so far behind those of the English and French. Cortez tried to encourage manufactures in the colonies, but

his policy was overturned, and the people received from Mexico the cloth which had been made in Holland and sold in Spain. The Fathers continued to form new missions whenever some benefactor could be found who would give an endowment of \$10,000, \$6,000 of which was put at interest and devoted to the education and care of the Indians. Each Father kept a chronicle of all which happened to him, and these engaging narratives helped not a little in the collection of money in Mexico and Spain. The mines of Arizona began to be richly developed, and it is still possible to see the remains of old mining operations there. Every little while the Indians, who seemed so obedient and trustful, would uprise suddenly and war with each other in their old savage fashion. In their hearts they resented this easy conquest of the Spaniards. The eloquence of their orators was leveled against the woman-like patience with which the braves sat down to eat the bread of charity, and from time to time the well-fed proteges of the missions were lashed into insurrection. After the death of Father Kino, in 1711, the missions began to decay. He had baptized more than forty thousand infidels, founded numerous churches, and conducted valuable explorations.

Spain, herself, was losing her glory, and it was not strange that the little missions, to which she had always been more or less indifferent, should suffer early from her decline. After this comes a history of revolts, and at last, June 25, 1767, came the decree of the council chamber of Charles III for the expulsion of the Jesuits.

The land upon the Gulf of Mexico had not been entirely neglected by the Spaniards. In 1690 a mission was established at the spot where La Salle's unfortunate colony had been. Other missions and military posts were established about Texas and New Mexico. But in 1693 the Spaniards were driven from them by the Indians. However, there still remained, on the west side of the Rio Grande, the posts known as Presidio del Norte and El Paso.

In 1712, Louis the XIV gave the grant of Louisiana to Antonio Crozat, which included the land reaching to the Rio Grande on the west. Between this country and Mexico there has always been a brisk smuggling trade. The first Texas missions were founded by the Franciscan Fathers, who used much the same plan that the Jesuits had done farther west. When the war of 1718 was declared between France and Spain, the little settlements on these distant frontiers thought it behooved them to imitate the home countries, and war with each other. One large expedition was fitted out to move against the French settle-

ments of the Upper Mississippi. The Spaniards lost their way and fell in with some Indians who massacred them and took all of their arms. After this Spain made no other attempt to settle on the land of the Upper Mississippi. In 1728 the Spanish government transported four hundred from the Canary Islands to Texas. A portion of these settled at San Antonio, Texas, but the growth of Texas was very slow, and the deadly policy of Spain took the life from the colonists.

FOR FURTHER READING.

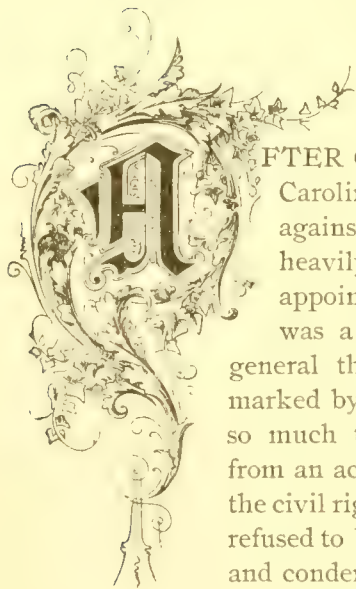
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CHAPTER XXXVII.

The Carolinas.

SIR NATHANIEL JOHNSON IN CAROLINA—STRATEGY AT FORT JOHNSON
—RELIGIOUS DIFFERENCES—MASSACRE OF 1711—UPRISING
IN SOUTH CAROLINA—THE YEMASSEES—THE BUC-
CANEERS—REBELLION AGAINST THE
PROPRIETORS.



AFTER Governor Moore's administration in South Carolina, which, through his ill-advised move against St. Augustine, plunged the colony so heavily in debt, Sir Nathaniel Johnson was appointed to office in Moore's place. Johnson was a man who had more of the instincts of a general than of a ruler. His administration was marked by one of those religious disputes which made so much trouble in all the early colonies. It arose from an act passed by his first assembly, taking away the civil rights from all who blasphemed the Trinity, or refused to believe in the divine authority of the Bible, and condemning them to three years' imprisonment. Following this, came a law which required every citizen who belonged to the assembly to conform to

the religion of the Church of England. By this law every Puritan of whatever shade of belief was robbed of his civil rights, though these dissenters were far greater in number than the Episcopalians. This Episcopal minority, of course, represented the Lord Proprietors who governed the colony. The dissenters sent John Ashe to England to beg the protection of the Proprietors, but he got no satisfaction from them. Another agent, Joseph Boone, was sent to England to make an appeal to the House of Lords. They referred the petition to the Queen, with a prayer that the wrongs of the colonists might be righted, and Queen Anne declared the laws to be null and void.

Though Johnson was so injudicious a ruler, he had some qualities which were not to be despised. At one time, when he learned that an attack was to be made upon Charleston by the French and Spanish, he superintended a pretty piece of strategy, which is worth relating. On James Island, in Charleston harbor, Fort Johnson held a few men for the protection of the city. William Rhett was placed as admiral over the militia of the province, which, with guns and ammunition, was put on board six merchant vessels which were in harbor. These preparations had barely been completed when the invading fleet, consisting of a frigate and four smaller vessels, under the command of Captain Le Feboure, sailed up and demanded a surrender. The man who brought the demand was blindfolded and taken from fortification to fortification. In each one of these he saw a well-armed and uniformed force, and never guessed that the men in each fortification were always the same, and that they hurried quietly before his blindfolded eyes. He went back to his commander and reported the extent of the force. Rhett managed his little fleet of merchant vessels with such skill that Le Feboure was unable to make a landing, and in a few days the French retreated.

The religious differences of the colony were not easily quieted. In spite of the fact that John Archdale, the Quaker, was one of the Proprietors, the Friends were at one time refused seats in the assembly. The war of words between the dissenters and the Episcopalians was constant. These disputes led to serious political complications. After Johnson was removed, South Carolina was in doubt for some time as to who was really Governor, such misunderstandings and contentions were there. When the claimants for office tried to summon an armed force and to move against each other, the militia quietly refused to obey. It was not until 1713 that Charles Eden was appointed Governor by the Proprietors and that religious freedom was allowed to be the right of every man in the Carolinas. During the last four years the colonies had not only been rent by internal rebellion and bitter persecutions, but by savage wars with the Indians as well. In 1711 the Tuscaroras succeeded in uniting in North Carolina all of the smaller tribes, as well as the half-civilized Indians about the colonies, in a general conspiracy against the English. On an appointed morning a single war-whoop was given just at break of day and in every house the servants rose against their masters. All about the villages lurked bands of savages waiting to fall upon the settlements in an unguarded moment. Few Indian massacres were conducted with so much fierceness and

decision. In most cases there was a blunder somewhere, but here, unfortunately, there was none. Many hundred were killed within that hour at day-break through all the settlements, and for three days the tide of murder swept on from south to north, stopping at last for want of more victims to kill. In all Indian warfare the burning of houses and destruction of property was as much a part of the fight as the killing of men. Governor Hyde begged Virginia and South Carolina for aid. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, interceded with the Indians, but Governor Craven, of South Carolina, sent a body of militia and several hundred friendly Indians hurriedly through the wilderness to the aid of the sister colony. In an open battle the Tuscaroras suffered heavy loss. The distracted remnant of settlers in North Carolina kept shut up in their garrison. The crops they had planted with so much care were destroyed. Little was left of the pleasant farms and villages. The little store of wealth which had been accumulated through the patient years was gone, and in almost every family there was mourning for the murdered. Through the long winter of 1713 this remnant of a colony dragged out a wretched existence, owing what little life it had to the protection of the soldiers from the South. A treaty was made at last with the Indians, and the soldiers retired to their homes. When the Indians were freed from their presence they broke their treaty, and the following summer was spent by both the English and the Indians in preparations for a renewal of the war. At the close of the summer Governor Hyde died, and Colonel Pollock was chosen Governor. He used the best means in his power for the protection of his colony. Realizing its limited resources and how few men it had to defend it, he sowed division among the Indians, weakening their party. Help came both from Virginia and South Carolina, and in an attack upon the Indians, in the spring, many of them were killed and eight hundred taken prisoners and carried to South Carolina as slaves.

The next colony to suffer from the Indians was South Carolina itself. In the spring of 1715 there was a sudden uprising among the Yemassee, the tribe who had been the allies of the South Carolinians in their conflict with the Tuscaroras. As in North Carolina, a day was agreed upon, and the outbreak came with horrible suddenness. More than four hundred were murdered, and many hundred homes were burned. There was in the whole colony only one proof of friendship between the races. Sanute, a Yemassee chief, had a great reverence for a bonny Scotch woman who lived with her husband upon the frontier. After the habit of his race when they vowed friendship, he

had washed his face with scented water and crossed his hands upon his breast, vowing that he should eternally be her friend. When the massacre was agreed upon, he warned her, and she and her husband fled to the coast. An organized force was led against the Yemassee by Governor Craven, and the Indians were defeated, and pushed through the wilderness across the Florida border. The Indians were now practically driven from the Carolinas—a country full of traditions for them and for which they had bravely fought. All the lands which had been reserved to the Yemassee were taken possession of by the colony, but these the Proprietors wrenched from them for their own use, and the new emigrants, hastening over to the territory which was opened up to them, were ruined by the demands for rent and purchase money. Governor Craven, of South Carolina, was succeeded by Robert Johnson, a son of the former Governor, Sir Nathaniel Johnson. He took charge of the colony under great difficulties. The Proprietors had taken away all independent legislation from the assembly, and assumed the right to reject and repeal all laws as they saw fit. The revenue was taken off the imported British goods, which had been used for the support of the colony, and the pirates who lurked about the Carolinian coast had become so bold that it was necessary to incur the expense of open conflict with them. The vessels of these buccaneers were so well armed and manned that they were able to capture merchantmen within sight of Charleston. When any person fell into their hands they extracted a ransom from the government. The admiral of these rovers was the famous Blackbeard, who had a squadron of six vessels under his command. He and his dare-devil captains had a station at the mouth of Cape Fear river. From here they could sally out upon any vessels bound for Charleston, and thus seriously injure the commerce of the colony. William Rhett, who had so cleverly managed the little fleet of merchantmen at the time of the French invasion, was put in command of a ship sent out to capture Steed-Bonnet, one of Blackbeard's most dreaded allies. It had been thought almost impossible to take him, but Rhett attacked his pirate vessel with its crew of thirty, captured them and took them to Charleston, where they were hanged. Another of the pirate captains, Morely, angered at his companions' fate, soon after this sailed defiantly into the mouth of the harbor. Governor Johnson took command of his ship himself, and went out to meet him. The Governor's crew was triumphant, and boarded the pirate, killing every one except the captain and one of the crew. These, though bleeding with many wounds, still refused to surrender, and were taken to

Charleston and hurriedly hung, that the Carolinians might have the satisfaction of seeing them swing. A royal proclamation had been made some time before, promising pardon to all pirates who would surrender, and Blackbeard, with twenty of his friends, went to Governor Eden, of North Carolina, and took advantage of this proclamation. He rioted about the village for a time, and then took to his life on the sea again. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, offered a large reward for his head. Two armed sloops were fitted out and sent after him. He heard of their coming and made preparations. His twenty-five men were ready to fight to the death. He boarded one of the sloops, which had got aground, with the expectation of making an easy victory, but a large reserved force of men who had been kept below, sprang upon the deck as the pirates poured over the sides. A hand-to-hand fight followed, and the two captains closed upon each other. After they had fired their pistols they fought with dirks, until Blackbeard fell. The successful Virginian party boarded the pirate vessels and made prisoners of the rest of the crew. A negro had been put with a fire-brand at the magazine, with orders from the captain to blow up the ship as soon as she was taken, but he was discovered, and the act prevented. Blackbeard's head was stuck upon the end of the bowsprit, and the young commander of the Virginian troops, Lieutenant Maynard, sailed proudly back into the Chesapeake.

South Carolina had just got this well off her mind and was freed from the depredations of the buccaneers, when she was threatened with Spanish invasion. Governor Johnson promptly called for money to prepare defences. The assembly said there was no money, and that the tax upon imports ought to be enough. The Governor reminded the assembly that the Proprietors had repealed the law. The assembly replied that they had nothing more to do with the matter. There was no Spanish invasion, as expected, but the difficulties between the Proprietors and the assembly had reached a climax. The people prepared for revolution, feeling they could stand the tyranny of the Proprietors no longer. Governor Johnson was held in respect and affection, in spite of the fact that he represented the hated Proprietors. His sincerity and good sense had won the hearts of the people, but notwithstanding this, they refused now to obey him or pay any attention to his orders while he voiced the will of rulers so tyrannical and unjust. The people elected a Governor for themselves—Colonel James Moore—and he was inaugurated on the same day that the militia was assembled for the revolution in Charleston. Governor Johnson had been at his plantation,

and when he came into Charleston he found the city alive with excitement. Drums were beaten about the streets, the ships were decorated with bunting, work was given up, and in the town square stood the militia of the whole province. Johnson tried to reason with the leading men. Some he indignantly reproved, and he ordered Colonel Parris, who was at the head of the troops, to disperse his men at once. This Parris refused to do, saying that he was there in obedience to the orders of the assembly, and when Johnson insisted upon having his commands obeyed, the soldiers were ordered to present their guns, and Johnson was told that he came nearer at the peril of his life. No one came to Johnson's side, and he saw that although he had not one enemy among those around him, the cause of the Proprietors was lost. He was led politely from the field by one of the leaders of the uprising, more popular than ever, perhaps, for the courage with which he had faced the loaded muskets of the troops. Both parties sent agents to England to present their sides of the difficulty, and in 1721 the government was taken away from the Proprietors and became a royal province. Sir Francis Nicholson, who seemed to be the favorite adjuster of difficulties in the colonies, was sent over by the King.

Queen Anne was dead, and George I had been King for over six years. Nicholson showed his usual good sense. He understood what the people needed, and was nothing if not a diplomat. He secured peaceful relations with both the Spaniards and the Yemassees. He signed treaties with the Cherokees and Creeks, on the west, and encouraged the building of churches and the laying out of parishes, sending to England for pastors. This was not so much that he had any personal religious enthusiasm, as that he knew the church was one of the cornerstones of government, and that it would greatly help the people in educational as well as religious and social affairs. There had not been a public school in the whole province when he came, but he constantly urged the necessity for them, and even used his private means, until at the close of his four years of administration a fair system of education had been begun. In 1729, both the northern and southern colonies were purchased by the crown, Lord Carteret refusing to sell his share, and retaining all the territory from 34° 35' to the boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. After this, North and South Carolina became legally two separate provinces. Burrington was the first royal Governor of North Carolina, but in a short time was displaced by Gabriel Johnson, who was appointed in 1734 and remained Governor of the colony for twenty years. In South Carolina, Robert

Johnson, the Governor who had been so determined under the rule of the Proprietors, was sent back with a royal commission. He was welcomed with enthusiasm, and for the four remaining years of his life worked to restore order, peace and prosperity. The colony was a mixed one, including English, French, Irish, Scotch and Spanish, differing in taste, religion and educational prejudices. Besides these, were about twenty-two thousand African slaves, not to mention the half-civilized Indians who hung about the colonies. There were a great many white slaves at this time, and from these degraded people came the "poor whites" of the South. With such a population as this, Governor Johnson's difficulties were many, especially as the debts of South Carolina were heavier than ever before. But the colony was now too strong for its life to be again in danger. Its prosperity was assured.

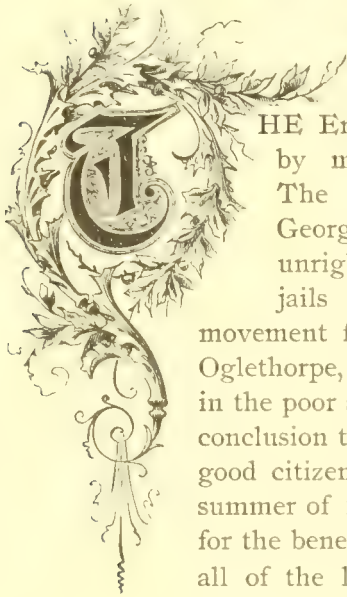
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CHAPTER XXXVIII.

From Alleys and By-ways.

HOW GEORGIA CAME TO BE SETTLED—THE EMIGRANTS—THE WESLEYS
AND WHITEFIELD—THE MARCH OF THE SLAVES—THE
SPANISH ATTACK—GEORGIA AS A
ROYAL PROVINCE.



THE English colonies of the North had been settled by men who thought themselves righteous. The most southern colony of the English—Georgia—was settled by men who were manifestly unrighteous. They were taken largely from the jails of England. It came about through a movement for the reformation of English jails. James Oglethorpe, a humane gentleman, taking great interest in the poor and criminal classes of England, came to the conclusion that in another country they might be made good citizens. He procured a grant of land in the summer of 1732, which was granted to twenty trustees for the benefit of the poor of the kingdom, and included all of the land between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe was a gentleman of courtly manners and of very noble family. He was also a soldier of experience. Subscriptions were obtained through England for the benefit of this colony, and a company of people were carefully chosen from the destitute among the large cities. They were largely laborers out of employment, or debtors who had long been imprisoned by their creditors. Oglethorpe himself took charge of the first company of emigrants. This contained about one hundred and fourteen persons. The place which they selected for settlement was the site of the present city of Savannah.

Under the intelligent direction of Oglethorpe, matters went well with the settlement from the beginning. The people were divided into three parties. One prepared land for cultivation, a second felled trees, and a third built palisades. Until the town was built they lived in

tents. Their first care was to prepare a battery and a magazine. Laborers were brought from Charleston to help in building, and Oglethorpe laid out the plan of the beautiful city of Savannah, which has been preserved to this day, and which stands as a monument to his judgment and taste. Even the names of the streets are, in many cases, the same which he gave. In a short time other colonists were sent over from England. A treaty was made with the Indians, and local government was established. South Carolina was most friendly to the colony, and gave it much help. As soon as possible substantial dwellings were put up in place of the cabins first erected. The manufacture of silk was made one of the principal industries of the colony, and a light-house was built on Tybee Island, ninety feet in height. A company of Highlanders built Fort Argyle, on the Ogeechee river, as a defence against the Spanish. In the first year and a half the colony increased to nearly five hundred persons. Besides the poor of England, there came many Highlanders from Scotland, and they took most kindly to American life, being used to hunting and to the cultivation of a sterile soil. Their half-barbaric, picturesque garb, the music of their bagpipes, and their love for a life in the wilderness, won the admiration and friendship of the Indians.

There came, also, a company of Salzburgers to Georgia. These people were of a religious sect which had been persecuted for centuries. For a time a handful of them had found comparative peace in the valley of Salzburg, a province of Bavaria, but as they increased in numbers the wrath of the church was again turned against them, and they were driven from their homes, wives and husbands separated, and children taken to be raised in the Catholic Church. Twenty thousand of them found refuge in Prussia. Some fled to Holland and some to England. In England, they were kindly received, and it was thought that a safe asylum might be provided for them in the American colony. Fifty families, still living near Salzburg, accepted the invitation, and marched through Germany to the northern coast, carrying the young and old, with their few provisions, in rude carts. When they came through a Catholic district they were persecuted, but when the district was a Protestant one they were treated with great kindness, the peasants even carrying the women and children in their arms from one town to another. It was many, many weary months before they reached Savannah. Their industry and their long acquaintance with privation made them very valuable to a new colony, although, like the Friends, they did not believe in the taking up of arms, and would

furnish no men to the fighting force of the community. Lands were given them on the Savannah river, which they selected themselves, and named the place Ebenezer. Soon after their arrival, in the spring of 1734, Oglethorpe went to England, returning in the winter with about three hundred persons. With him came two young men by the name of Wesley, who stayed in Georgia but a short time. The people did not guess at that time the lofty strain of genius which ran in them, and which was to bring such powerful influence to bear on all Christendom in after years. John Wesley had a church at Savannah, and when he left, his friend, George Whitefield, who was to be no less noted than himself, took his place there. He and Wesley had been friends at Oxford. Oglethorpe brought with him on his second voyage two acts of Parliament. One of them prohibited the introduction of spirituous liquors in the colony and the other forbade the bringing of slaves. Unfortunately neither of these laws could be enforced. Whitefield fought the introduction of slaves for a time, but at length he himself yielded to it, and worked large plantations with them, using the money for the benefit of an orphan asylum which he built near Savannah. His influence had much to do with the introduction of slaves in Georgia.

A large part of the emigrants which Oglethorpe had brought over with him were put on the Island of St. Simons, at the mouth of the Altamaha river. The island was made formidable with forts and batteries. The Governor made an unfortunate move against St. Augustine, and was severely repulsed there. On his third visit to England he obtained a military commission which included South Carolina as well as Georgia. In the summer of 1739 he learned that the Spanish were trying to make allies of the Creeks, Choctaws and Chickasaws, who had formerly been friendly to the English. Zomo Chi-Chi, the friendly chief whom the first settlers of Savannah had used as an interpreter, begged Oglethorpe to attend a council three hundred miles northwest of Savannah, at which the chiefs were to gather. It took him one month to go and return, going through an unbroken wilderness, which no settler had previously entered. Not alone did he have the interminable forests of the South to pass, but the bewildering swamps as well. He met chiefs of numerous tribes, who could bring seven thousand warriors into the field, and gained such influence over them that it was a protection to Georgia through all his life, and indeed long after that useful life had ended. Shortly after this, the slaves of Carolina arose and began a march toward Florida, destroying the plantations and

killing the whites as they went, but getting badly intoxicated, they were surrounded by a body of militia and dispersed, a few being taken prisoners and others killed.

In 1742 the Spaniards made up their minds to retaliate for the English expedition against St. Augustine, and sent a fleet of thirty vessels, with a force of five thousand men, against Georgia. Oglethorpe got his Highland forces together from Darien, and all Indian allies who were in reach. A force of about eight hundred men were put in the field. Oglethorpe's action in this was gallant, though he only had a merchant vessel of twenty guns and two schooners of fourteen guns each. When the fleet of vessels sailed up St. Simons harbor, Oglethorpe himself took command of the vessels. He put eight schooners, with one man each, out for the purpose of harassing the vessels or of conveying himself from one place to another. He directed the batteries on shore as well. The fight lasted twenty hours, and the Spanish fleet fought their way through the fire of the batteries to the shore. Oglethorpe spiked his guns, destroyed all the provisions, and fell back upon Frederica, on St. Simons Island. The English were now behind those fine defences on which they had prided themselves. The head of the bay was difficult to navigate, and no ship could get through without "going about." As she did so, the batteries were so placed that she could be raked at once from three directions for three-fourths of a mile. The Spaniards dared not attempt this, and landed the fleet four miles below the town, with the intention of attacking the English at the rear with their force of five thousand men. A road ran southward from Frederica between a marsh and one of the tangled southern woods. At one place this road had a crescent shape, with a width of about sixty feet. The crescent ended in a wood, and here Oglethorpe left a detachment of troops, with some Indian allies. The Spaniards had no difficulty in driving this handful of men before them. Word was sent to the general, who hurried up, met the Spaniards at the entrance of the crescent and drove them back through the wood, into the open country beyond. Leaving a force of men there, he went back to Frederica, fearing an attack from the front. Finding all quiet there, he took a large reinforcement and started once more down the road. He met his men flying before the Spaniards. He turned them back and hurried on, for he knew that if the enemy once got through the narrow road to the prairie, Frederica could not long stand out against five thousand men. The Spaniards had marched on, and two or three hundred of them lay in the crescent of the road. The Englishmen

had fled before them. From the rear there was no danger of attack, and they quietly went into camp there, and began to prepare a meal. But the rear guard of the Highlanders, who had been so far behind that they could not aid their comrades, had leaped into the wood when the panic had seized their fellow-soldiers. They were hidden completely in the dense woods, and the Spaniards swept by them without dreaming that any man either could or would enter that dark tangle. With the Highlanders were a few Indians, who understood well this method of warfare. The Highlanders and Indians waited in perfect silence, not allowing one sound to escape them, until all of the arms of the Spaniards were stacked and they were resting on the ground and quietly taking their dinner. Then two Highland caps were raised in the air at different points. This was the signal for attack. Fire was poured in upon the Spaniards. The Highlanders were in no danger, for they could not be seen, and consequently could not be fought. The men in the roadway were falling with every shot. By the time Oglethorpe had reached the place the firing had ceased, and the Highlanders and Indians, shouting with triumph, stood in the midst of the Spaniards, hardly one of whom escaped. The Spaniards gave up the attempt of making an attack by land, and were easily defeated on the water, when, a few days later, an attempt was made to approach the town that way. The Spanish general, in the course of a few days, put his whole army on board his vessels, and went back to St. Augustine, persuaded that the English force must be a heavy one. Oglethorpe promptly manned his three boats and chased the fleet out of the sound.

In 1744, General Oglethorpe returned to England, but he never, to the end of his ninety-six years of life, lost his interest in the colony. After his departure from Georgia, William Stephens was appointed president of the trustees. The colony had not kept up its first happy promise of prosperity. The manufacture of silk and of wine had both been unsuccessful. So much time had been spent in active warfare that lands had been neglected, and the prohibition of slave labor caused much discontent. The trustees, feeling that they could not govern the people to the satisfaction of either party, gave back the charter to the crown. For ten years after it became a royal province its growth was slow. In 1754, when a convention of delegates from the several colonies met at Albany to form a union, Georgia was not represented.

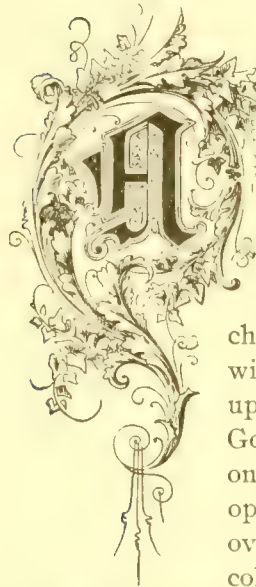
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY - Jones' "Georgia."
Fairbank's "Florida."
Carpenter's "Georgia."
Jones' "Zomo-Chi-Chi."

CHAPTER XXXIX.

The Cavaliers of Virginia.

CULPEPPER IN VIRGINIA—GOVERNOR EFFINGHAM—NICHOLSON AND
ANDROS—THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRIES—
MARYLAND—THE CLERGYMEN
OF VIRGINIA.



AFTER the triumph of Berkeley over Bacon in Virginia, the Royalists were very overbearing. Morals had become very loose. Every one in the colony worked for himself. There was an absence of that public pride, which was the strength of Connecticut, Rhode Island and Massachusetts. In 1675, Lord Culpepper came to Virginia with a commission for life over the province, to take up the affairs of the colony where the proud old Governor Berkeley had dropped them. Culpepper's only interests in the colony were personal ones. He oppressed the people with fresh taxes. There was an over-production of tobacco, the only staple of the colony, and therefore a steady lowering of prices.

Few towns sprung up, and the people living upon isolated plantations could not work in unity. The Assembly clamored for the rights of the people. They protested that a stop must be put to the over-production of tobacco. A few head-strong men undertook to put an end to this over-production by cutting the young plants. This may be known as the earliest American strike. Like most strikes, it only increased the difficulty. There was much distress, too, because the currency of the colony was not worth its face value in gold.

In 1684, Culpepper surrendered his patent and ceased to be governor. Virginia was once more a royal province. Lord Howard, of Effingham, became the ruler of affairs. He levied new duties, invented new oppressions, and hung the foolish plant cutters. Imprisonment was common for slight offenses. Effingham repealed many laws of the Assembly, and revived laws which were hateful to the colonies. Small

rebellions were numerous during his rule, and the slave element constantly increasing and growing more turbulent, threatened the lives of the free population with insurrection. Affairs were bettered some when Effingham went to England, and Colonel Francis Nicholson became



A CAVALIER OF VIRGINIA.

Lieutenant-Governor. Though Nicholson had made so foolish a figure of himself in New York, he seemed to have a healthy influence upon Virginia. More liberal, modest, and unselfish than before, he went to work with a will to straighten out the complicated affairs of the colony. He visited every part of his province, that he might become familiar with the people and their condition; he gave entertainments, and himself superintended athletic sports. By his enterprise, a great public road was built through the province, and a public post-office instituted. He decided that the best way to stop the over-production of tobacco was to encourage other industries, and he saw to it that flax was grown, leather manufactured, and that the trade with the Indians flourished. Drunkenness he made a misdemeanor, punishable with the stocks, and instituted an almost Puritanic mode of living among the careless, luxurious, and wine-loving Virginians. He aided in the establishment of William and Mary College, which had been established by the Rev. James Blair, the head of the Established Church of Virginia. This college was used then

mainly for the education of men intending to be clergymen, and here, at the time of Nicholson's endowment, there were over a hundred pupils. Though Nicholson only remained in Virginia about two years, he made many radical improvements. Sir Edmund Andros was sent over in his place. Like Nicholson, Andros had learned wisdom with experience. He came among the Virginians in a somewhat humbler frame of mind than he had when he was first set over New England. Perhaps

the stern lessons which the Puritans taught him was not forgotten, and in any event he was more likely to be popular among the Episcopal royalists of Virginia than among the Puritan Whigs of Boston. He brought with him the charter of William and Mary College and began a good work in the colony by completing the post-office which Nicholson had started. He also encouraged domestic manufacture and introduced cotton, although it did not succeed in Virginia. But the slave trade lay like a blight upon the colony, putting a check to true industry. A contest between President Blair, of William and Mary College, and Governor Andros resulted in the displacement of the latter from office, and Nicholson was called from Maryland to take his place.

When Nicholson left Virginia, after his first administration there, he returned to England, and when a revolution in Maryland had deposed the government of Lord Baltimore, thus becoming a royal province, Nicholson was made the second royal Governor. In Maryland, now the Catholics and now the Puritans were uppermost in political matters. In religious matters it was always liberal, and people of all faiths were welcomed there. The conflict between the Puritans and the Catholics was political, rather than religious. An armed revolution was brought against the Catholic government in 1681, and Baltimore's government was overthrown. The Protestant assembly took upon itself the direction of the affairs of the colony.

Nicholson ruled here with satisfaction until he was recalled to Virginia. He substituted the Church of England for the Catholic Church. This, it can easily be imagined, was a difficult matter. There was a great lack of clergymen in Maryland, and Nicholson had a considerable number brought over. Public worship was forbidden to the Catholics. The Puritans and the Quakers were not interfered with, although they were greatly discouraged. Nicholson had a school built in each county of the province, and a school embracing the higher branches, called King William's School, was opened at Annapolis, in 1694. Annapolis had been made the capital of the province by Nicholson. In a short time everyone of the thirty parishes had a small library, in each of which there were about fifty volumes. At Annapolis there was a larger library, containing eleven hundred volumes. All of these books were free to everyone in the colony.

When Nicholson, fresh from these labors, went to Virginia, he found that the colony had grown in his absence. It now had a population of forty thousand. This second rule was not so satisfactory to the people as the first one had been. The House of Burgesses, which represented the

people, had grown very strong. He had an open quarrel with the members because he desired that Virginia should contribute to the building of forts for the protection of the northern provinces against the Indians. The burgesses refused to give anything. Nicholson felt that the colony was disgraced by this refusal, and said so in terms more unmistakable than polite. He became unpopular, also, because he took away the power of the vestries in the churches. These vestries had the right of controlling, to an extent, the action of the clergymen. These clergymen, he it said, were rather a rollicking and prodigal set. Frequently they were not even as orderly in their private living as were their careless parishioners. Their drinking was notorious. When Nicholson was guilty of the error of taking away the powers of the vestries the people felt that they were at the mercy of a lawless set of leaders, and complaints were sent to England against the Governor. These complaints were not all of a public nature. Nicholson had, unfortunately, made himself ridiculous in his love suit to a lady who refused to marry him, and he threatened the lives of her father and brothers. A thing of this sort naturally made him many enemies. Before he was deposed he laid out the town of Williamsburg, which was made the capital of the colony, and here, in the second year of its settlement, was held the first commencement of William and Mary College. This was nearly sixty years after the first commencement day of Harvard College, in Massachusetts.

Nicholson was recalled to England, and for five years the colony managed its own affairs, under the council. Then Alexander Spotswood arrived, bringing with him the writ of habeas corpus. Governor Spotswood was still young. He was full of life and ambition, with an inborn sense of justice and a true appreciation of happiness. He set about immediately reforming the courts, and tried to regulate the taxes. He was interested in the colony, and assisted it by raising a large fund for its support. He established a school for the education of Indian children also. Young and adventurous, he was not willing to stay cooped up in the settled part of his province, but desired to go beyond those beautiful mountains which raise themselves in blue mists at the west. In August, 1716, he started from Germantown, on the Rappahannock, to cross the Blue Ridge. With him, on fine horses, were a company of gentlemen, filled with as much curiosity and gayety as himself. Troops of hunters and servants went with them, and liquors and provisions were carried upon a train of horses. Every day this gallant company marched and hunted. With their trumpets, their guns, and

their songs, they awoke for the first time the hoarse echoes of the mountains. They crossed beyond the dividing ridge of the mountains, where the waters parted, and took possession of the beautiful valley beyond. In six weeks they returned, having traveled more than two hundred miles. Spotswood, in memory of this charming expedition, founded the order of the Knights of the Golden Horseshoe, giving each comrade who had accompanied him a little golden horseshoe to be worn as a badge. But it was sixteen years after this before the Shenandoah valley, which he and his merry companions had visited, was settled; and then the intruders came, not from Virginia, but from Pennsylvania, and were constituted largely of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians. Germans from Pennsylvania also scattered themselves through this fertile country.

Spotswood secured a treaty with the Indians, which gave to the English all of the region east of the Blue Ridge and south of the Potomac. This treaty was of much value to Virginia. In 1722, Spotswood ceased to be Governor, but as a private citizen he was still valuable to the community. He found beds of iron ore on his forty thousand acres of private property, and he was the first to establish a furnace and foundry in Virginia. Following him came Hugh Drysdale. The building up of the valley beyond the Blue Ridge brought many emigrants direct from Germany, and in the first half of the eighteenth century the population of Virginia was doubled twice. A better class of men began to come, who desired liberty and independence rather than riches, and who were willing to work themselves, instead of depending upon the toil of unhappy slaves. The people who came now were of the middle classes, self-respectful, industrious, and temperate. They had neither the arrogance of those of gentle blood, nor the viciousness of those unhappy creatures dragged from the slums of London. A more vigorous religious life was apparent, too. Following Drysdale, came Governor Gooch, and he was in power when the great preacher, Whitefield, was welcomed on his first journey to Virginia. Governor Gooch, be it said, did not take part in this welcoming, but the people made up for his lack of enthusiasm. In 1736 a printing press was set up, and William Parkes published a weekly paper at Williamsburg. The colony was no longer made up entirely of plantations. Prosperous towns sprung up about the coast and the rivers. Norfolk, Fredricksburg, Falmouth, Richmond and Petersburg were founded and flourished. The life of the richer planters of Virginia was very luxurious. The women were renowned for their beauty and their coquetry. The men prided themselves upon their hunting and good fellowship. The entertainments of the day were cere-

monious and stately, in violent contrast to the simplicity cultivated in Massachusetts.

In Maryland, the government had once more passed into the hands of the Baltimore family. Now the Baltimores represented the Protestant faction, having seceded from the Catholic Church. Six Lord Baltimores ruled over Maryland, the last of them dying in 1771. Their rule had always been wise and manly, and when Maryland passed into the hands of the royal government it was in a prosperous condition. In 1750 the population was about one hundred and thirty thousand. Iron was being developed in the State, and a large number of furnaces and forges were working successfully. Woolen, linen, tanning, shoemaking and other trades were succeeding, but here, as in Virginia, too large a proportion of the people were slaves; there was an over-production of staples and an element of discontent.

FOR FURTHER READING
FICTION—Caruther's "Knights of the Horseshoe."

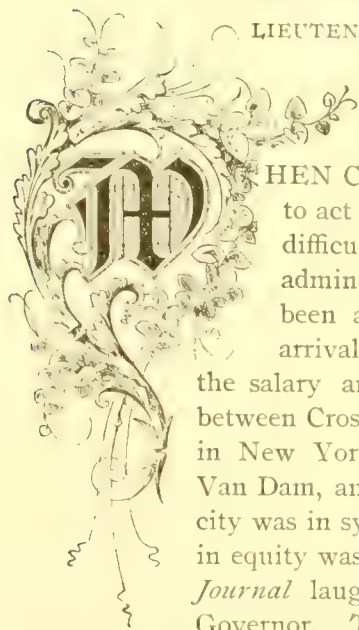


A MORAVIAN SETTLEMENT.

CHAPTER XL.

A Reign of Terror.

THE FIRST TRIAL FOR LIBEL IN AMERICA—THE NEGRO PLOT IN 1741—THE BURNING OF "QUACK" AND THE HANGING OF URY—THE MINGLING OF DUTCH AND ENGLISH IN NEW YORK—THE GOVERNMENT OF LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR CLARK.



WHEN Colonel Crosby came to New York, in 1732, to act as Governor, his coming brought about a difficulty which was the only thing to make his administration memorable. Rip Van Dam had been attending to affairs before the Governor's arrival, and was asked to give an equal partition of the salary and perquisites of the office in the interval between Crosby's appointment and his actual appearance in New York. The popular party sympathized with Van Dam, and, as usual, the aristocratic portion of the city was in sympathy with the royal Governor. A suit in equity was brought about, and the *New York Weekly Journal* laughed in rather an indiscreet way at the Governor. Two ballads were printed whose humor was considered to be of a libellous sort. It was decided that they should be burned in the public square by the common hangman, in the presence of the magistrates. The hangman burned them, but the magistrates refused to be present. The editor of the paper was arrested and brought to trial. The case was brought before the jury, and the prisoner was acquitted. It was held that the editor said nothing which was not true. It was perceived that to speak against people in power might not always be wrong, and that to tell the truth, however disagreeable, was a thing which should not be necessarily punished as an offense. This was the first trial of the kind in this country, and furnished a precedent which was long quoted.

Crosby only lived four years after his appointment, and George Clark, a member of the council, quietly ruled over New York for seven years. His administration was marked by one dark tragedy, for which he was not personally responsible any more than the city full of people about him. This was what is called the negro plot of 1741, when all New York went mad together. There were a few Spanish negroes in the place, who, though they were freemen in their own country, had been enslaved in New York. It was known that they were resentful, and when a large number of fires broke out about the city the blame was laid on them. The Governor's house was burned, and within a few days numerous other houses were found smoking. In most of the cases the fires were extinguished before they did much harm. But the people became excited over the matter, and when the crowd cried that the Spanish negroes had caused the fire, everyone was ready to take it up. It is true that the negroes had faithfully worked with the white men to extinguish the fires, but this was not thought of. All negroes found in the streets were arrested. Vague stories, lacking foundation, spread like wild-fire. It was thought that there was a plan to burn all of New York to the ground. A set of disreputable people who kept a saloon of the lowest order said that they knew of a conspiracy among the negroes. Among these people was one young girl, Mary Burton, a servant, who had been raised in the lowest surroundings. She was met by the dignified council and all of the most powerful men of New York, and urged to tell the truth. Anxious to save herself from any blame, frightened, and naturally vicious, it is not strange that she stated that there was a terrible plot to burn the city and to murder and rob its inhabitants. Every member of the bar wished to plead in behalf of the government, and not one person offered to present the cause of the friendless and quaking negroes who were imprisoned in the jail. The people demanded victims. They were willing to believe any story that might be told, even that of the lying, frightened child of fifteen. Others were found as willing as she to tell stories about the negroes, hoping to bring themselves into favor with the judge—for every doubtful person of New York was under suspicion. A few, indeed, thought their might be no truth in it and took pity on the poor negroes, but these were a hopelessly small majority. The negroes were wild with fright, and confessed to crimes which they had never committed. Standing on a pile of faggots which were presently to be lighted for their own consuming, it is not strange that they told of others implicated in the matter in the hope of saving themselves, but this it never did.

They said that a few negroes had intended to watch the doors of Trinity Church on some morning, and to kill the congregation as it came out; that they were then going to murder the rest of the inhabitants, assume rule, and select a king from among themselves. The court believed this ridiculous story. The most influential citizens of New York urged punishment, and in two or three months more than one hundred and fifty negroes were imprisoned. Over one hundred were convicted as conspirators, twelve of them were burned alive at the stake, eighteen were hanged, and seventy-two were transported as slaves to other countries. In the few cases where their masters came forward and protested their innocence, attempting to prove an alibi, the evidence was paid no attention to whatever. The terrified negroes were ready to confess to anything. One poor negro, named Quack, admitted that he set fire to the Governor's house; that he took a brand from the kitchen fire and put it on a beam under the roof; that the roof did not catch fire, and that the next day he did the same thing, puffing at the brand until it flamed. The truth of the matter was, that a plumber had been up on the roof with an open furnace of live coals; that the wind was high and some sparks lodged in the shingles. As the excitement grew the people began to fear a Popish plot. They hunted the town over for Catholic priests, but found none. There was a rumor that priests were coming to New York in the guise of dancing-masters, school-masters, music-teachers, etc. One quiet school teacher, John Ury, was arrested on suspicion. Mary Burton, the child who had brought so much trouble on the negroes, said that he was one of the men in the habit of frequenting the place at which she had lived, and which was supposed to be the gathering spot of the conspirators. Though many protested that Ury was an honorable and quiet man of godly life, he was hanged. At last Mary Burton went too far, and began to implicate gentlemen who wore "ruffles," and who offered her presents of silk dresses. The judge and his friends thought this a good time to bring the examination to a close.

Although this childish and abject excitement spoke so badly for New York, it was, as a matter of fact, growing in power. It had become the key of the colonies, so to speak. Presbyterians had come from Ireland and Protestants from France, toward the end of the seventeenth century, and in 1710 three thousand of the Protestants who had fled to England, at the invasion of the Rhenish palatinate by Louis XIV, crossed to New York, settling upon the upper water of the Mohawk and Schoharie creeks. The Scotch, Scotch-Irish, Dutch and English

came in large numbers to the colony, spreading over the country and cultivating the land. School-houses were built among the villages. New York itself wore a most attractive appearance. It had a reputation for great cleanliness and order. The beautiful Holland tiles and bricks still held place in their house-building. The English lived with great luxuriance and wore fashionable clothes, but the Dutch clung for the most part to the quaint and picturesque costumes of their fatherland. The life for all was pleasant, and amusements were much more sought by the people of New York than by those of New England. In 1756 the population of New York City was twelve thousand. In 1738 Lieutenant-Governor Clarke founded a school for the teaching of Latin, Greek and mathematics. The other colonies were beginning to send their products to this port for shipment across the sea. The royalists and common people were constantly at verbal war with each other, but they united sufficiently to increase the mercantile value of their place. They reluctantly took part in the movement against the French or Indians, and gave money grudgingly. The Governor was of warlike spirit, and felt it a shame that the people under him were so reluctant to do their share of fighting for the defence of the confederation of the colonies, but the assembly and the militia united in disregarding his orders, and he realized, as did De Lancey, who followed him, that the time had come when concessions must be made, even by the King, to the stalwart burghers of the New World.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Brodhead's and O'Callaghan's "New York."

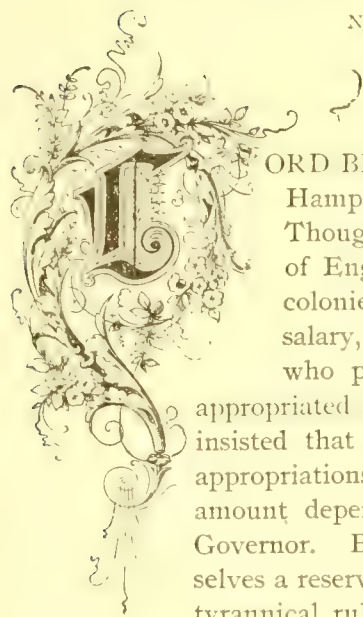
FICTION—F. Spielhagen's "Deutsche Pioniere."

J. F. Cooper's "Satanstoe."

CHAPTER XLI.

The Clash of Arms and Ideas.

LORD BELLOMONT'S RULE OVER NEW YORK, NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MASSACHUSETTS—DUDLEY'S RULE—THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH WAR OF 1702—TAKING OF PORT ROYAL—THE LUMBERERS' DIFFICULTIES IN MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE.



LORD BELLOMONT'S rule over New York, New Hampshire and Massachusetts was a pleasant one. Though he was a member of the High Church of England, he deferred to the Puritanism of his colonies. The assembly refused to vote him a salary, as it had done with all of the Governors who preceded him. But the money which it appropriated for him was considerable. The assembly insisted that it should have the right to make such appropriations as it pleased from year to year. The amount depended entirely upon the popularity of the Governor. By this means the colonies kept to themselves a reserve which would send any obnoxious or too tyrannical ruler back to his own country. Governor Bellomont made an effort to check the unlawful privateering of Rhode Island, for this little State had become the home of pirates. It was not unusual for some ship, hovering about the shore, to make out after a vessel at sea, capture it, bring it to shore, and appropriate its cargo. The harbor was never closed with ice, as was that of New York. The Gulf stream, flowing around the rocky shores of Rhode Island, kept it free through all the seasons, so it became the favorite resort of the sea rovers. Rhode Island had once had a poor reputation for harboring those obnoxious persons who dissented from the Congregationalism of Massachusetts; it now gained a worse reputation from the favor it showed to the pirates.

For many a long year Connecticut and Rhode Island quarreled with each other about boundary lines, and it was not until 1703 that Connecticut was willing to accept the Pawcatuck river as her eastern line. When Bellomont died, Stoughton became Governor for a short time, when he also died, and Dudley was sent to manage the affairs of Massachusetts. In May, 1695, that Board of Trade was organized in London which regulated the colonial and commercial affairs until the American Revolution. Its interference with trade and commercial liberty was a constant source of vexation to the people. The detested Randolph was again sent over as surveyor-general. Dudley tried to carry into effect an article of the new Massachusetts charter which gave the Governor the power to reject the nominations of the General Court. Cotton Mather headed a strong party, which included all the leading clergy of the province, to put Dudley from office. But Dudley also had a strong party among the royalists, and this dispute served to keep up that internal dissension which Massachusetts was never free from.

For five years there had been peace between the French and English, and those terrible Indian raids upon New Hampshire and the province of Maine had ceased. But in 1702 war was again declared between France and England, and the French and Indians of Canada once more felt free to vent their native hatred against the English colonies of America. Never had the Indians been more cruel, subtle and successful. The town of Deerfield, in Connecticut, was surprised by three hundred French and Indians one morning in February, 1704. The town had been guarded by sentries, for an attack was suspected; but the savages in the woods waited until they retired at daylight, and then rushed upon the people, who were just arising for the labors of the day. Fifty were killed, and a hundred of them were carried to Canada. Among these were children, who were given to the Jesuit priests that they might be raised in the Catholic faith.

Many of the young women were married to Indians, and with that began the race of half-breeds, which filled the northwest with such good trappers and guides. It was not infrequent for the children stolen in this way to acquire such a love for Indian life that they could never bring one back to the dull restraints of Puritan civilization. The free woods were dearer to them than the tedious town. The delights of the chase were preferred to the labors of the field.

The French claimed the whole of Maine as far as the Kennebec, and had established a trading and missionary post among the Norridgewock Indians, who dwelt among the upper waters of the river. The

French and Indians united in their efforts to keep the English east of the Kennebec, and every English fishing vessel found in Canadian waters was seized upon by the French men-of-war. Governor Dudley saw with apprehension the growing enmity of the Indians, and asked the Norridgewocks to meet him in council. The Indians did so, promised friendship, and helped in the building of two great cairns of stone, which was a sign of lasting friendship. All of the time that the Indians were feigning to be in such an amiable mood, they were preparing to seize the Governor and his suite and give them into the hands of the French. The plan was not carried out, because a French party expected did not arrive in time. In less than six weeks after this an attack was made upon the settlements between the Kennebec and the Piscataqua. All over the province the people hurried to the garrison houses. The fields were no longer worked, except under the protection of a force of armed men. The settlers armed themselves and went in pursuit of the Indians, but could not find them. Several of these unsuccessful tramps were made upon snow-shoes through the unbroken snow of the wilderness. Colonel Church, the celebrated Indian fighter, came up from Massachusetts with over five hundred men to protect these northern settlements. But aside from destroying some villages and killing a few of the enemies in chance engagements, he did little.

In the midst of winter the New Hampshire men fell upon the Indian village of the Norridgewocks, burning the French chapel and the wigwams. This made the Indians more unrelenting than ever. Within a few months they attacked many of the settlements of Maine, New Hampshire and Massachusetts. The difficulty then, as in all Indian warfare, was that the Indians would never meet their enemies in open field, and more danger and expense was encountered in finding them than in fighting them. A high price was paid to everyone who brought in an Indian scalp to headquarters, a man's scalp being worth one hundred pounds, and that of a child or woman fifty pounds.

Dudley was firm in his purpose to move against Canada and conquer it. This seemed to him the only way of freeing the colonies from their enemy. Colonel March was sent with a force of a thousand men, in 1707, to reduce Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. All through the winter and the spring the men fought in vain. They had been reduced from one thousand to two hundred in number, principally from the hardships of the winter in that latitude. Then came Nicholson's campaign with the New York men, which also failed. In 1710 the place was taken by five regiments of troops which sailed from Boston

harbor. General Nicholson, of New York, commanded the expedition. Only forty lives were lost among the English, and Nova Scotia ceased to be a French province.

In 1714 Governor Dudley was removed from office. The Whigs had grown to be the stronger party, and they declared that the office of Governor was vacant. Following him came Colonel Burgess, who sold his commission to Samuel Shute. At the time Shute assumed authority Massachusetts contained ninety-four thousand inhabitants. It had one hundred and ninety vessels. In the fisheries were one hundred and fifty smacks. Manufactories of many sorts were flourishing to the great vexation of the English, who tried in vain to keep down colonial industry.

About this time inoculation was first introduced in the colonies. Boston had suffered frightfully from small-pox. At three different times it had raged in the city. When vaccination was introduced by a physician named Boylston, it was fought not only by the doctors, but by the ministers as well. Cotton Mather was one of the few who encouraged the brave physician.

Shute had the same trouble in Massachusetts which his predecessors had had. The assembly refused to vote him a fixed salary, and this, as usual, was made the subject of many quarrels. The currency of the colonies had fallen far below par, and the financial condition was generally bad. Upon the north the Indians were constantly intrigued. The country was likely at any time to be plunged into continuous war. In matters of theology there was less sternness. Newspapers were becoming more common. Jonathan Edwards was writing his books on Calvinistic philosophy, and following him were a number of theological writers for whom he furnished inspiration. Increase Mather, the father of Cotton Mather, did not cease, even in his old age, to write religious pamphlets. Benjamin Franklin at this time was writing with versatility and vigor. A few years later than this, William Livingston, a journalist, and Governor of New Jersey, wrote a poem on philosophic solitude. William Smith, at one time president of William and Mary College, wrote an excellent history of the first discovery and settlement of Virginia. This was published in 1747. Cotton Mather, of course, expressed in newspaper and pamphlets his vigorous and combative ideas on the subjects of the day.

The lumberers of Maine and New Hampshire suffered great injustice at this period from the King's surveyors, who went through the forests selecting the best of the trees and marking them with a broad arrow.

These the settlers were not allowed to touch. The farmers had a legal right to the land on which these trees stood, and they resented bitterly the stealing of their property. They were also kept from shipping timber to foreign countries—a matter which they felt concerned no one but themselves. In 1718, a number of Scotch Presbyterians came to New Hampshire. They introduced the manufacture of linen, the spinning of wool and the cultivation of the potato. In 1723 Shute left for England, and Wentworth became Governor of New Hampshire. The year before this the third Indian war had broken out in the northern provinces.

FOR FURTHER READING.

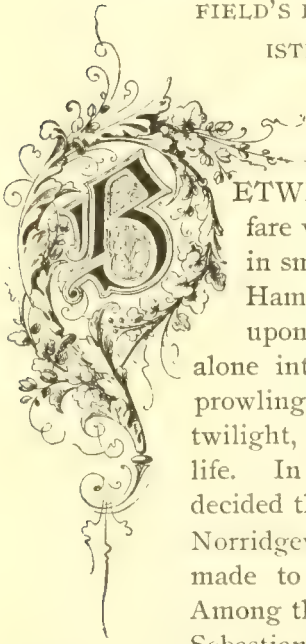
HISTORY—Drake's *Indian Wars*.Cotton Mather's *Magdalen*.Thornton's *Historical Relations of New England to the English Commonwealth*.

FROZEN IN.

CHAPTER XLII.

“Americans Are Born Rebels.”

EXPEDITION OF MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE AGAINST THE NOR-
RIDGEWOCKS—THE COMMAND OF CAPTAIN JOHN LOVELL—
WILLIAM DRUMMER IN MASSACHUSETTS—WHITE-
FIELD’S REVIVAL AND SHIRLEY’S ADMIN-
ISTRATION—LOUISBURG—THE
SURRENDER.



BETWEEN the years 1722 and 1724 a harassing warfare was kept up by the Indians. The savages crept in small bands about the frontiers of Maine and New Hampshire, falling, at the most unexpected times, upon unprotected homes. If a woman ventured alone into her yard, she was apt to be seized by the prowling Indians. A man journeying home in the twilight, knew that he did so at the imminent risk of his life. In 1724, Massachusetts and New Hampshire decided that an expedition must be sent out against the Norridgewock Indians. Twice before attempts had been made to break up the settlement of these Indians. Among them was a brave and determined man, Father Sebastian Rasle, a French priest who had gained immense influence over the Indians. He had lived among them thirty-seven years, and though he was a scholar, dropped his own language for that of the Norridgewocks and adopted their manner of living. The Indians loved him with all the intensity of their wild natures and were willing to meet any danger in his defense.

The Englishmen knew that if they wished to succeed in subduing the Indians, they must first capture Rasle. Twice they had failed. On the 12th of August, 1724, they succeeded. Two hundred Englishmen rushed upon the Norridgewock village when most of the warriors were absent. Such as escaped from the rifles and swords fled into the woods, and Father Rasle, in attempting to turn the attention of the

enemy from these flying women and children, was himself killed. The Englishmen stuffed his mouth with dirt and hacked his poor old body horribly. It wanted only this to inflame the Indians. Captain John Lovell organized an expedition which started in April, 1725, against the Pequawkett Indians, of Maine. The Indians lay in ambush for Lovell, and he and eight of his men were killed. The remaining twenty-three retreated under cover of night to the stockade, taking with them the men who could walk. One brave-hearted fellow, Lieutenant Robbins, who was mortally wounded, asked that a musket be left beside him so that he might have one more shot before he died. The men, after their weary march, found the stockade deserted, and in continuing their march homeward, some of the wounded died on the way. There were few left of the Pequawkett Indians.

But the English saw that yet sterner measures must be taken. They concluded, therefore, to move against the French, without whom the Indians might have lacked the courage to keep up their continuous fighting. Some commissioners were sent to the French Governor to inquire into his reasons for disturbing the treaty between France and England. The Governor was entirely under the influence of the Jesuit priests, who believed that it was to the glory of their religion to fight the Protestant Englishmen whenever they could. The commissioners succeeded only in getting the Governor to procure the release of some captives. A treaty was made between the English and the Eastern Indians in 1725, and for twenty years there was comparative peace. Thus closed the third Indian war.

New Hampshire was very anxious for a Governor of her own, who should in no way be beholden to Massachusetts authority. It was not until 1740 that she succeeded in getting the consent of the Crown to such a measure and that the boundary line which divided her from Massachusetts was definitely decided upon. Benning Wentworth, a son of Lieutenant-Governor Wentworth, was made the first Governor. He brought to his office all of the dignity which the New Hampshire people could have desired. With a troop of guards about him he rode in a pretentious coach, and lived in a house which, for those days, was little less than princely. The story of how he married pretty Martha Shortredge, one of his servants, is told so well by Mr. Longfellow that it would be foolish to repeat it.

In Massachusetts, William Drummer, the Lieutenant-Governor, was looking after the forces of the colony while Shute returned to England. Following, came Burnet, who had some bitter quarrels with

the assembly on the old question of a fixed salary. In 1730 Jonathan Belcher was sent out from England as Governor. He refused to accept the grant of money voted him by the assembly, and dismissed the house. This had no effect upon the people, and at length the King was obliged to yield the point and consent that Massachusetts should do as she pleased about the payment of Governors.

This was one of the strongest steps toward national independence—it was the greatest concession which the Crown of England had yet made. William Shirley who succeeded him in office, was much liked. He was the first of the royal Governors who succeeded in keeping up cordial relations with the people. Whitefield's great religious revival, which was shaking New England from its foundation, may have had something to do with these amicable relations. It may seem surprising that there was much need for a revival of this sort in Puritan New England, but the truth was that the people had begun to feel the reaction which naturally followed in the wake of religious discipline so stern as that the early Puritans imposed. People had grown indifferent and worldly, but their religious traditions made their remorse all the more sharp, when they were awakened to a sense of their falling-off by a man of Whitefield's eloquence. The religious excitement grew so high that even the coldest could not stand out against it. The more sensible people did not approve of this excitement, and thought it was doing great harm to the nervous and impressionable.

In 1744 the French and English in the old country became involved in another war. The Governor of Breton, as soon as he heard of it, moved against a settlement of English fishermen on the island of Canso. The French had been very jealous of the English fishermen, and were glad of an excuse for striking a blow at them. The settlement at Canso was destroyed and the men sent to the French fortress at Louisburg. Governor Shirley at once began preparations for war. He made up his mind to take Louisburg. This was the strongest fortress in America. It had been twenty-five years in building, and cost France thirty millions of livres. At the southeastern point of Cape Breton was a walled town, two miles and a half in circumference. The stone rampart was over thirty feet high and in front of this ran a ditch eighty feet wide. The harbor was defended by a battery of thirty 28-pounders. Upon a little island just opposite was a battery of still larger guns. The town was entered over a draw-bridge which was guarded by a circular battery of thirteen 24-pounders. The batteries and six bastions could mount one hundred and forty-eight cannons.

Shirley's preparations were made in secret. Only the New England troops consented to join the enterprise. Shirley took with him 4,500 men. Whitefield encouraged the expedition, and his influence was very valuable. Colonel William Pepperell was persuaded by Whitefield to take command of the expedition. The French heard nothing of the matter. All over the provinces a day of fasting and prayer was held. The troops met on the island of Canso; then, on April 29, 1744, they sailed for Cape Breton. A part of the English landed and set fire to some large warehouses filled with spirits. The smoke, drifting inland, so frightened the French that they spiked the guns of their battery at the bottom of the harbor, and taking boats, retreated to their walled town. Thirteen men who were reconnoitering found that the battery was deserted, and took possession. As they had no flag with them, one of the soldiers went up the flag-staff with a red coat in his teeth and nailed it up, that the French might know they claimed possession. The French attacked them, but were held off until reinforcements came up, when they again retreated. On May 5th, Pepperell threw up three batteries near the city. Guns and ammunition had been dragged through the swamps during the past fourteen days, and these were hurried into the batteries. Another battery was thrown up within a short distance of the draw-bridge, but the town was not easily forced. Pepperell knew that the island battery must be taken. This could only be done by sending a fleet up the harbor. Commodore Warren, who was cruising around outside of the bay, had captured a French ship having sixty-four guns, six hundred men, and a quantity of military stores on board. From the men on the captured ship, the English learned that the French were expecting a large reinforcement. The English decided to move at once. Pepperell tried a night attack with his scaling ladders, but his men were repulsed with a loss of sixty killed, and one hundred and twelve taken prisoners. The siege was still continued from the batteries. Pepperell was getting very short of ammunition, and some of his best guns burst. By the first week in June, fifteen hundred of his men were sick. Commodore Warren kept the French from carrying the news of the siege to Quebec. But the French were not alarmed, and felt no great need of reinforcement. They were well-trained soldiers; their enemies were farmers and mechanics, many of whom knew little about the use of their fire-arms. Pepperell built another battery within range of the island battery in the harbor. He had nearly ruined the draw-bridge battery by this time. Commodore Warren and General Pepperell decided to make an attack

together. Warren's fleet was drawn up in line and the land forces were put in a position to attack. This was the 15th of June, 1745. The French lost heart. They asked that hostilities might be suspended and terms of capitulation made. On the 17th of June, Pepperell marched into the fortress at the head of his plucky men. Governor Shirley hastened up and was given the keys of the place by the general. Six hundred and seventy regular troops, thirteen hundred militiamen, six hundred sailors and two thousand inhabitants were sent to France. The English had lost one hundred and thirty men. The French lost three hundred. General Pepperell was made a baronet, and was the first American to receive that honor. Warren was made admiral. Pepperell was also given high honors in the English army and presented with a table of silver and a service of plate by the city of London. For a year Louisburg was garrisoned by New England troops.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Leaky's "England in the Eighteenth Century" (Chapter on Whitefield.)

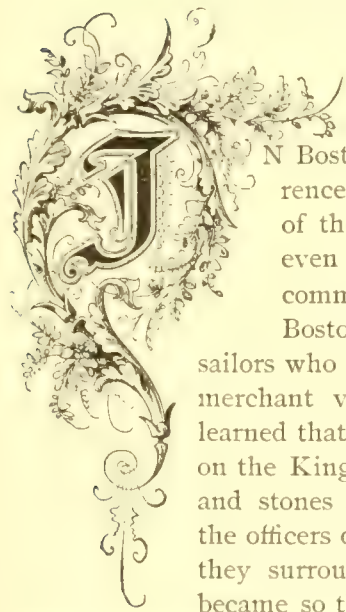
POETRY—Whittier's "Mogg Megone."

Whittier's "Mary Garvin."

CHAPTER XLIII.

“They Nurse Treason With Their Milk.”

THE GROWING SPIRIT OF INDEPENDENCE—THE FIRST EXPEDITION
AGAINST FORT DU QUESNE—THE COLONISTS FOR AGGRES-
SION AND OFFENSE—BRADDOCK’S ILL-FATED EXPEDI-
TION—GEORGE WASHINGTON’S FIRST AP-
PEARANCE—BRADDOCK’S DEFEAT
AND DEATH.



IN Boston, in the year 1747, there was an occurrence which marked the growing independence of the colonies, and showed how near they were, even then, to revolution. Commodore Knowles, commanding an English man-of-war, sailed into Boston harbor, and to supply places of some sailors who had deserted, he took a press-gang from the merchant vessels of Boston. As soon as the people learned that some of the Boston boys had been forced on the King's ship, they armed themselves with clubs and stones and hurried to the Governor's house, where the officers of the ship were being entertained. All day they surrounded the house, and in the evening they became so threatening that it required the utmost efforts

of the Governor and other influential citizens to keep them from violence. Even then they sent brickbats crashing through the windows of the council chamber, and demanded that every officer in town belonging to the fleet should be seized and held till the Boston boys were released. The militia was ordered out next day by beat of drum, but the drummers were in full sympathy with the kidnaped sailors, and refused to obey orders. The mob was made up mostly of mechanics and laboring men, and by their authority alone the officers of the ship were held in custody for three days. Commodore Knowles threatened to bombard the town if they were not released. Governor Shirley,

disgusted with the disorderly conduct of the citizens, went to the castle on the harbor that he might be out of a town where law was so disregarded. The General Court passed a series of resolutions which expressed sorrow for the behavior of the citizens, but declared that the House would exert themselves to redress their grievances. The militia came out promptly, ready, and perhaps even anxious, for conflict. Governor Shirley returned to the city, and the Boston sailors were exchanged for the British officers of the man-of-war. When Knowles sailed out of the bay, everyone in Boston gathered on the wharves and shouted at the discomfiture of the Commodore, who went back to England with an appreciation of the fact that the people in the colonies would do pretty much as they chose.

In 1748 a treaty was made between France and England which returned to France the fortress of Louisburg, which the English had so gallantly taken. There was not a man in the colonies who did not feel this to be a personal insult. It seemed as if the mother country set a low price upon the lives of her subjects. The engagement had plunged the colonies heavily in debt, also, and it was some time before Parliament voted the money to pay it. The treaty between the countries in the Old World had little effect upon the colonies in America. Hostilities were kept up on the border constantly, and when open war was resumed, in 1755, there was but little change in the attitude of the French Canadian and the English settlements. The French had built a chain of military posts along the great lakes and upon the highways of the river system. About these grew up little settlements. They even commanded a part of the Mississippi. The English were pushing their settlements westward, and in 1748 the Ohio Company was formed, which made use of the river communication by the Potomac and the eastern branches of the Ohio. A road was built over the mountains from Cumberland to Pittsburg, and exploring parties were sent out in 1750 and 1751, under Christopher Gist, who was surveyor of the company. In 1753, Major George Washington, a young Virginian, was sent out with Gist and others to visit the French forts which were encroaching upon the land which the English considered their own. The reports which he brought back in January, 1754, determined Virginia to fit out an expedition immediately. This was done. Washington was made second in command under Colonel Joshua Fry. The French were under Contrecoeur, who soon met a detachment of the English, drove them from the fort which they were building and occupied it himself. Washington, who had command of the main body of the

army, had a gallant engagement at Great Meadows, but was defeated and forced to surrender.

It had been proved that the colonies could not work independently. Benjamin Franklin and other of the wisest men of the colonies thought it was best to have a union. Congress assembled at Albany. Mass-



GEORGE WASHINGTON IN HIS YOUTH.

After the painting by C. W. Peale, and the engraving of J. W. Faneuil.

achusetts Bay, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, the Jerseys, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia and North and South Carolina sent delegates. Chiefs from six nations also met there. This congress wished to meet annually, but the Board of Trade in

London would not permit it, thinking that it gave too much power to the colonists. In the convention it was agreed that war with Canada was necessary.

In 1754, Edward Braddock was made Commander-in-chief of all the fortresses in North America. Six thousand regular troops were given by the Crown, ready for service, as well as the money for the purpose of raising a colonial army. It was Braddock's intention to march against Fort Cumberland. Unfortunately, Braddock started from Virginia, because the road had already been built from there. But this made his march an exhausting and expensive one. He did not understand the nature of warfare in America, although he was a man of much experience and bravery. He was used to the well-regulated warfare of Europe, and could not, or would not, understand the savage methods which the frontiersmen used, owing to the fact that the Indians were always allies with them and they had no choice but to employ their methods. Braddock had one thousand regular soldiers, thirty sailors, twelve hundred provincials, a train of artillery, and wagons and horses which Benjamin Franklin had procured for him, beside the brave, friendly Indians. This line stretched along the narrow road. Had the Indians chosen at any time to attack it, as it wound its way through the great forest of white pines and the desolate mountains, it could have cut it into a dozen pieces.

Washington was sent ahead with twelve hundred men, about half of the force, leaving the rest with the baggage and the horses at Little Meadows. There were not more than a thousand men under Contrecoeur holding the French fort. Contrecoeur thought that it might be safest to surrender at once, but De Beaujeu, one of his captains, asked permission to lay an ambuscade for the British. The Indians put on their war-paint and followed him. The Frenchmen were wild with enthusiasm. Braddock, proudly confident of his strength, moved on. Washington said afterward that he never saw so beautiful a sight as the British troops made on that morning when they were ordered as if on dress parade, and with their flying colors, their martial music and glittering uniforms, hastened toward the fort. Suddenly Beaujeu, dressed in a French hunting dress and wearing a silver gorget, bounded down hill. Behind him came the French and Indians. At a signal the Indians disappeared. The French fired upon the English, then all about from the hollows and the woods came the fearful shrieks of the Indians. The English stood steady in a compact body and returned the fire. Beaujeu was killed, but his men, fighting from behind trees and

in ravines, worked terrible destruction among the Englishmen, who were fighting after European methods on the clear ground. Washington wanted Braddock to allow the men to use the methods of the natives, but this was not soldierly, according to Braddock's idea, and he would not permit it. Braddock had four horses shot under him, and was finally wounded himself. His army beat a wild retreat. A few faithful friends carried him with them. He died, giving up his command to Washington, and was buried at Great Meadows. The army marched to Philadelphia.

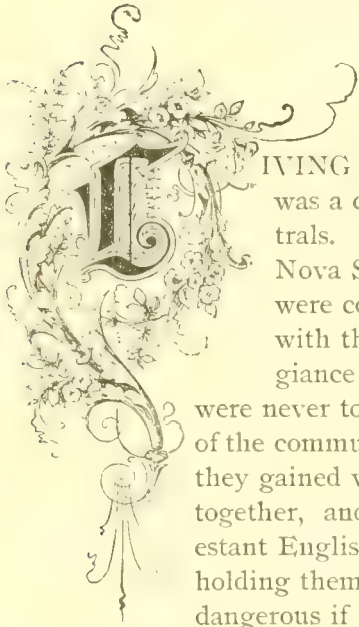
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Spark's "Life of Washington."
Columbus' "Life of Washington."
Parkman's "Pontiac."
FICTION—C. McKnight's "Old Fort Du Quesne."
Wright's "Marcus Blair."
Thackeray's "Virginians."

CHAPTER XLIV.

Desolated Acadia.

FRENCH AND ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN NOVA SCOTIA—THE RIVALRY
BETWEEN THE SETTLEMENTS—COLONEL WINSLOW
DRIVES OUT THE ACADIANS—THE PATHETIC
EXODUS—PERSECUTION OF THE
EXILES.



LIVING upon the basin of Minas, in Nova Scotia, was a company of people called the French Neutrals. They were British subjects, for at this time Nova Scotia was an English possession, but they were constantly suspected of being in sympathy with the French and would take no oath of allegiance which did not contain a proviso that they were never to take up arms against France. The people of the community were very industrious and frugal, and they gained wealth rapidly. Their religion held them together, and kept them from mingling with the Protestant English. The French and the English united in holding them in suspicion, feeling that they must be dangerous if they would give the allegiance to neither one nation nor the other. England was anxious to have Nova Scotia, or Acadia, settled with hearty British subjects, and in 1740, Colonel Edward Cornwallis led an expedition of nearly two thousand five hundred persons into Chebucto harbor and settled the town of Halifax. The nearest settlement was that of the French, on the basin of Minas. A little cattle path ran through the woods for twenty miles, connecting the two towns.

The garrison was removed from Louisburg, and assisted in the work of the young settlement at Halifax. The English imagined that their French neighbors were setting the Indians upon an attack upon the colony, and all through the winter of 1749 the people lived in fear of

an attack. There was also a French settlement at the mouth of the St. John, and it was feared that the two colonies would unite in a move against the English. To avoid such danger, the English decided that the people of Grand Pre must be made to take a complete oath of allegiance or else be removed altogether from communication with the French. After several years of suspicion and dissatisfaction a crisis was reached in 1755, when the people of Minas begged to have the arms, which had been taken from them, restored. There was a rumor that a French fleet was in the Bay of Fundy and that the Acadians intended to join the forces and attack the English garrison. The Governor ordered the French inhabitants to send delegates to Halifax for the purpose of giving the oath of allegiance. They refused to take it. It was therefore decided that the French inhabitants should be sent out of the province. An expedition was sent from Massachusetts, under the command of Edward Winslow. The French fortifications were taken, the Acadian Indians disarmed, and some of the Acadians pressed into English service. The farmers of Grand Pre were then asked to meet the English in the little church at 3 o'clock in the afternoon to hear what the English officers had to impart to them. The old and young men, and all the boys of ten years of age, were required to be there. They assembled, unsuspectingly, to the number of four hundred and eighteen. The church was put under guard. Colonel Winslow told him that it was his Majesty's instructions and orders that all lands and tenements, cattle of all kinds, and live stock of all sorts, were forfeited to the Crown. Only their money and household goods were allowed them. It was promised that families should be kept together, and that removals should be as easy as it could be made. The poor French farmers were surrounded by troops, and their prayers and protests were of no avail. The men were kept in the church for some time, waiting for the arrival of the vessels which would transport them. When they came, all the young unmarried men were placed upon the vessels first, then all of the young married men. Only the very young or the very old were left on shore. There was no chance for a revolt. It was many weeks before the rest of the transports arrived in which the families were to be placed. In the meantime, the unhappy women spent their days in packing up their goods and arranging for departure.

Colonel Winslow grew tired of his bitter task. The weeping of the women worried him, and their prayers were harder to face than the fire of an enemy would have been. On the 21st of October the remaining transports arrived and the people were embarked. There were at least

two thousand of them, possibly more. The exiles were scattered through a number of the colonies. Some of them returned to France. There was a colony planted in Louisiana, and a few returned in time. In Massachusetts, they were persecuted. The children were taken from their parents and driven from town to town. Everyone refused to care for them.

No doubt the Puritans thought that they were serving the Lord in this persecution of the Roman Catholics. In Pennsylvania, the exiles were distributed among country towns and provisions were made for them from time to time. They were always gentle under the wrongs which were heaped upon them.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Haliburton's "History of Nova Scotia."

FICTION—Mrs. Williams' "The Neutral French."

Haliburton's "The Old Judge."

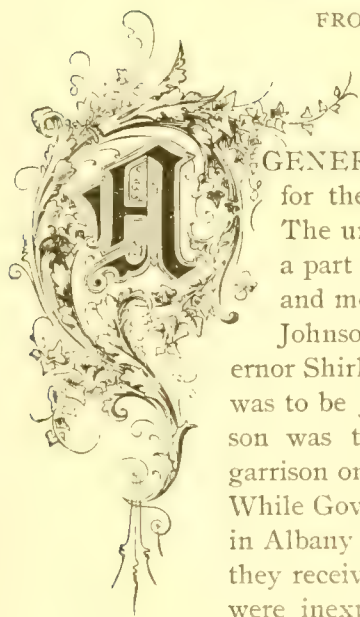
De Mille's "The Lily and the Cross."

POETRY—Longfellow's "Evangeline."

CHAPTER XLV.

The Lion or the Lilies.

OPERATIONS AGAINST THE FRENCH IN THE NORTH—THE BATTLE AT
BLOODY POND—THE FRENCH TAKE FORTS OSWEGO AND
WILLIAM HENRY—THE ENGLISH RETAKE LOUISBURG—
THE BATTLE OF CARILLON—THE ENGLISH
RETAKE OSWEGO AND CAPTURE
FRONTENAC AND DU
QUESNE.



GENERAL plan had been laid out by the English for the reduction of France in the New World. The unfortunate expedition of Braddock was but a part of this. He was to take Fort Du Quesne and move on to Niagara. Governors Shirley and Johnson met with their forces at Albany. Governor Shirley was to move against Niagara, where he was to be joined by Braddock's men. General Johnson was to move against Crown Point, a French garrison on the southern shore of Lake Champlain. While Governors Shirley and Johnson were waiting in Albany for the arrival of the last of their troops, they received word of Braddock's disaster. The men were inexperienced and impatient. Fighting, they could understand, but waiting and planning, which is so large a part of the success of war, was distasteful to them. Shirley was obliged to wait so long before making his attack upon Niagara that a fall storm set in. Many of his men deserted him, and he thought it best not to venture upon so long a march, amidst the inclemency of the coming weather, with a reduced force of men. He learned, also, that the French, under Baron Dieskau, were intending to attack Oswego. He strengthened that place by increasing the garrison there to seven hundred men. The French were anxious for Oswego, for

though Forts Niagara and Frontenac commanded each end of Lake Ontario, Oswego, upon the southern bank, held the key to the Ohio valley. So long as this was not in the possession of the English, the French traders were not likely to be interfered with. Dieskau was, indeed, upon the point of moving against Oswego, when he heard of General Johnson's intentions to move against Crown Point. Dieskau abandoned his first intention and hurried to meet Johnson. He had two thousand men, whom he took up Lake Champlain to Fort St. Frederick, at Crown Point. There he waited for the English. General Johnson's forces had been sent northward, under General Lyman, in mid-summer. They spent their time in building a fort on the east bank of the Hudson while they waited for General Johnson to arrive with the necessary stores and equipments. It was the 8th of August, 1755, when General Johnson set out to join Lyman. Ammunition, provisions and all other necessities of a campaign were carried fourteen miles to Lake George. Here they were obliged to wait for their boats, but built a fort in the meantime. Here Indians from the Six Nations joined Johnson from time to time in small numbers. Lyman's men were engaged in strengthening the fort; Johnson encamped farther south on the lake, in a spot protected by the lake on one side and a marsh on the other.

Dieskau left a strong party at Crown Point and marched southward, with the intention of taking Lyman's men, thus cutting off Johnson from his supplies. Could he do this, there would be nothing between him and the New England border. The Indians were full of objections. They were always reluctant about attacking forces, having a terrible fear of cannon. They refused to believe Dieskau when he told them that Lyman was entirely unprovided with them. Dieskau was, therefore, obliged to march against Johnson's camp. Johnson heard of their approach and went to meet them. Dieskau prepared an ambush in the shape of a horseshoe, intending, when the English marched into it, to bring around one of the long lines and close about them, attacking from all sides. Hendrick, the chief of the Mohawks, and a detachment of Johnson's men, marched into this. Upon three sides of them the French and Indians rose with a yell and fell upon them. Bloody Pond, on the east shore of Lake George, still marks the spot where those unfortunate men fell. Reinforcements covered the flight of the remnant of the English back to the rude barricade which Johnson had hastily raised and where he had placed his few cannons which he had brought up in boats.

The Canadian Indians would not pursue the fight when they saw the

cannons. The Mohawks, on the English side, had already fled. Their chief, Hendricks, had been killed. The provincial soldiers, hiding behind their barricade of trees, picked off the French regulars until they were obliged to take to the woods. Johnson had been wounded and Lyman took command. The French, protected by the trees, crept up close to the breastworks, and the battle became a hand-to-hand fight. Lyman kept the cannons busy sending a raking fire through the swamps where the savages were lurking. The French were obliged to fly. Johnson gave orders that his men were not to pursue them. The French rested and began preparations for a meal, for they were half starved. Just then a detachment of two hundred New Hampshire troops marched down from Fort Lyman. These fell upon the French, and besides doing much execution, got their baggage and ammunition. The French lost about five hundred, the English between two and three hundred.

There was the greatest rejoicing in the colonies. Johnson was made a baronet and given a large sum of money. In Albany, the people knew that they had been saved from destruction. The English proceeded to build a strong fort at the south end of Lake George. It was called Fort William Henry. That and Fort Lyman were both well garrisoned. The French took possession of the pass at Ticonderoga and fortified it. Governor Shirley, since the death of Braddock, had been at the head of the English army in America. The plans which he laid for the coming year, 1756, were a repetition of the year before. The desire was to capture Fort Du Quesne and Crown Point; Niagara, Frontenac, and Ticonderoga were to be taken, if possible. The British and French governments formally declared war in May, 1756. Lord Loudon was made Commander-in-chief of the English forces, and the Marquis De Montcalm was placed at the head of the French. The Englishman was indolent and unambitious. He waited for this thing and that, while the army in America was suffering for his presence. Montcalm was very different. He hastened to Canada with two thousand men and a large quantity of stores. Under his directions the French cut off supplies intended for Oswego. They captured small English forts, took a considerable number of prisoners, and succeeded in winning the alliance of the Six Nations. The French succeeded in capturing Fort Ontario, with a slight loss to themselves. The English lost as prisoners of war, sixteen hundred men, including eighty officers, one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, a large store of ammunition, and the seven armed ships and two hundred batteaux which were to have been sent against Niagara and Frontenac.

The English, weakened by the languid and ineffectual command of Lord Loudon, continued to be inactive. The force had dwindled, by sickness, from seven to four thousand. Montcalm returned to Montreal for the winter. The English plans for the next year were to confine hostilities to a single expedition. This was to be against Louisburg, which the English had taken once before so gallantly. Four thousand more men were raised in the colonies. The troops met at Halifax and were joined by Loudon with six thousand regulars, but when Loudon learned that Louisburg was well garrisoned, he concluded to put off an attack for a year and returned to New York. When Montcalm heard of this, he made up his mind to move against Fort William Henry. This fort had been badly situated. Some of the hills by it commanded it absolutely, and around it were marshes and low-lying ground. Montcalm, with fifty-five hundred Canadians and regulars, and sixteen hundred Indians, made his way from Ticonderoga across the portage to the upper part of Lake George. Here he divided his men. Part were sent in batteaux and canoes down the lake with all the baggage, and twenty-eight hundred followed the Indian's trail by the side of the lake. These last mentioned were under the command of De Levis. Montcalm landed on the west side of the lake, about two miles from the fort, and demanded its surrender. Colonel Monroe, who was in command, promptly refused, thinking that he could rely on the assistance of General Webb's men at Fort Lyman, fifteen miles below. But Webb had the stupidity to advise Monroe to surrender, since he could give no aid to him unless General Johnson arrived with reinforcements. The French intercepted this letter, learned the nature of the men they had to deal with, and sent the messenger on his way.

General Johnson did arrive with reinforcements, but Webb would not permit him to give the assistance to poor Monroe, although the common soldiery were wild for action, and outraged at the meanness which left him to his fate. The siege lasted for six days and Monroe was obliged to surrender. Montcalm made liberal terms but the Indians had been inflamed with liquor and their thirst for blood aroused. Montcalm had promised that the troops should be marched to Fort Lyman safely. He tried to keep his word, but the Indians broke from all control and fell upon the Englishmen. In their panic the English even fled to the French for protection. It has never ceased to be a subject for dispute among the friends and enemies of Montcalm, as to whether he inspired the Indians in this treachery or not. Montcalm burned Fort William Henry and returned to Canada.

The Indian depredations continued all along the English frontier as far as the valley of the Shenandoah. Oswego, the key of the Ohio valley and the great lakes, had been lost. It is true that the English held Acadia, but the silent and desolated villages were not a proud possession. Fortunately, at this time, a man who was always a friend of the American colonies came to their relief. It was William Pitt, the English statesman. At this time he was Secretary of State, and he took vigorous measures for sending armies, ammunition and a general equipment from England. He also called for a large number of colonial soldiers. All the New England men needed was encouragement and example, and they responded to the call with enthusiasm. Admiral Boscawen and Sir Jeffrey Amherst were placed in command of the forces which were called to attack Louisburg. On June 2, 1758, these forces arrived at Louisburg, and a well-planned assault was made. The French surrendered and the English took six thousand prisoners. This was very important to the English, for there now stood nothing between Louisburg and Quebec, the strongest and most impregnable of the Canadian cities. New England began to take courage once more, and looked to Brigadier-General Wolfe, who played an important part in the engagement, for a leadership of more power. Abercrombie, who had taken the place of the ineffective Loudon, was aiming at the capture of Ticonderoga. With him was Lord Howe, a general of bravery and dash, trusted by his officers and beloved by his men.

On the 5th of July, Abercrombie came up Lake George with fifteen thousand troops, both regulars and provincials, in a fleet of batteaux. The scarlet uniforms of his English regulars, the plaids of his Highland troops, and the motley garb of his provincials making a picturesque spectacle. The French had been sent to keep the English from landing. One body of them was driven back, the other took to the woods, and wandering there bewildered, encountered a body of horsemen, who were also lost. In the engagement which followed, nearly all of the French (three hundred and fifteen) were killed. The English lost heavily also, and Lord Howe was shot. His loss was a greater disaster to the English than twice the number of the French slain would have been. On the 8th, a regular attack was made upon Carillon. Abercrombie sent his regulars again and again to the deadly abatis. The huge trunks and roots of the trees afforded the best protection in the world for the French. Lord Abercrombie, unused to this method of defence, did not sufficiently value its strength.

At sunset the English gave the fight up as hopeless and withdrew to

the lake. The discouraged men encamped upon the ruins of Fort William Henry, and counting their numbers, found that they had lost over two thousand. Meanwhile, Bradstreet, with three thousand men, had once more secured Oswego to the English. He then rode down the lake to Frontenac and captured its garrison, and then returned to Albany to join the men who remained. The third expedition which had been sent for the recovery of Fort Du Quesne, under General Forbes, was successful. Forbes did not march by the road which Braddock had followed, but started from Bedford, Massachusetts. With Forbes was Colonel Washington and his Virginian troops. A great deal of time was wasted in building bridges and leveling woods after the manner of European warfare, which the commander followed and Washington protested against. The march was so long that the provisions were exhausted, and it was feared that the expedition would have to return without having accomplished anything. The French did not feel strong enough to venture resistance, and they set fire to their magazine. So the English conquered almost in spite of themselves. The key to the lakes and the Ohio valley was once more in their possession. A terrible disaster befell the army a few days later, when Grant's detachment of men, consisting largely of Highlanders, were surprised by seven or eight hundred Frenchmen, and nearly all killed. Pitt continued to send supplies and men over to America. By the 6th of July, the English were before Niagara. The general first in command was killed by the carelessness of one of his soldiers, and Sir William Johnson took his place. The French knew that their garrison was too small to hold against the besieging force, and sent to Detroit and Presque Isle for reinforcements. These the English met and defeated in a spirited engagement. When the French at the fort were convinced of this disaster, they surrendered. Meanwhile, Amherst had brought eleven thousand men to awe the little garrison of Ticonderoga. The French did not attempt resistance, but blew up the magazine and retreated northward. Amherst went on cautiously to Crown Point, only to find that the French had retreated still farther north. The rest of the year was employed by Amherst in building those massive works on Crown Point, which are still the wonder of tourists. Rogers was sent with his rangers against the Indians, but the great interest of the English campaign lay with General Wolfe.

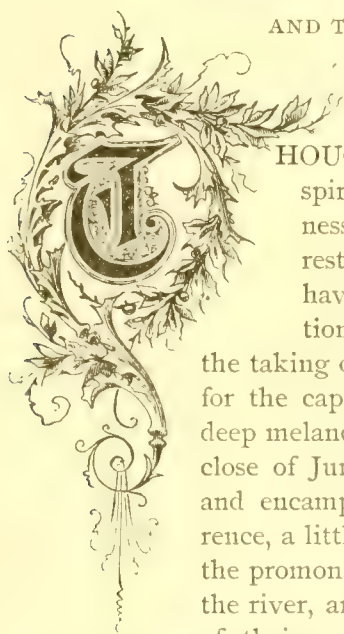
FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—James' "Ticonderoga."
Cooper's "Last of the Mohicans."
POETRY—Whittier's "Pentucket."
Whittier's "St. John."

CHAPTER XLVI.

The Paths of Glory.

THE EXPEDITION AGAINST QUEBEC—THE NIGHT ATTACK AND THE
FIGHT ON THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM—THE DEATH OF
MONTCALM AND WOLFE—NEW ORLEANS
AND THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY
GIVEN TO SPAIN.



THOUGH Wolfe was a man of much strength of spirit, he suffered constantly from bodily weakness. Nothing but a fierce determination to restore the honor of the English colonies could have kept him up through those trying expeditions. He rested in England for a time after the taking of Louisburg, and then returned to prepare for the capture of Quebec, suffering, meantime, from a deep melancholy and a presentiment of death. At the close of June, 1759, the English forces left Louisburg and encamped on the Isle d'Orleans, in the St. Lawrence, a little below Quebec. A detachment was put on the promontory of Point Levi, on the southern shore of the river, and still nearer the city. Montcalm learned of their coming, and made preparations for defence.

Rocky bluffs rose straight up from the St. Lawrence, and for years these natural fortifications had been considered impregnable. Montcalm had about three thousand men, in fortified camps, protecting the city. Across the St. Lawrence was a dam, with vessels sunk behind it and barges in front. The St. Lawrence, on the south side of the city, was about a mile wide, and at that place was a swift-flowing river. Montcalm's forces were much larger than Wolfe's, and the English soldiers were inclined to the belief that an attempt against such forces and fortifications was useless. Wolfe did not depend upon strength, but on strategy. An attack was made on the French camp near the falls of Montmorenci. The Englishmen made a bold attack, but in the end were forced to take

to their boats and retreat. The expedition was a sorry failure, and at least five hundred men were lost by the English.

The siege was kept up for another month. Little effect was made upon the upper town, but the lower one was almost destroyed. Wolfe was sick and melancholy. The inaction was dispiriting to the troops. What they desired was to force Montcalm to meet them on open field. At length Wolfe, lying ill in his tent, hit upon a plan which made him immortal. In the time which they had lingered there, Wolfe had become well acquainted with the country, for his men had reconnoitred faithfully. Therefore, on the night of the twelfth, a moonless night, Wolfe rose from his bed and led sixteen hundred of his men. They dropped silently down the river with the current, and landed beneath the overhanging heights above the city. Up these wooded bluffs were steep paths, and fourteen volunteers led the way while the sixteen hundred men followed. Once they were challenged by a sentinel. A Highlander replied, in the French tongue, that they brought provisions. There was no other interruption. It was the Highland boys in their plaids that sprang ashore first. They were used to mountain climbing, and rushed up the steep. The little guard at the head of the path was soon overpowered. When the morning light broke, Quebec was astonished to see an English army on the Plains of Abraham, the great table land behind the city. Montcalm hurried thither with twenty-five hundred men.

He had been on the other side of the St. Lawrence river, and had to cross the bridge of boats and pass through the city before he reached the Plains. The English had already begun to intrench themselves. The French had no time for preparations, and one gun was all they had been able to drag after them. The Canadians crouched in the cornfields and began the attack, and the French regulars, in three divisions, moved upon the centre and the flanks of the English. The French kept up a steady fire, but the English did not level their guns until their enemies were within a few feet. Then, of course, the fire was deadly, and the English followed it up by a hand-to-hand attack. The Frenchmen fell into disordered rout.

Wolfe was wounded. He had one ball in his side, and another in his breast. Some one carried him to the rear and laid him on the grass, where he lay almost unconscious, but when a man cried, "See how they run!" Wolfe raised himself suddenly and asked, "Who run?" When he heard it was the enemy, he gave his last orders:

"Tell Colonel Burton to march Welb's regiment down the St.

Lawrence river and cut off their retreat from the bridge." Then he died peacefully. Montcalm was also killed, and was buried in a cavity of the earth made by the bursting of a bombshell. It was the burial he had asked for. On the 18th of September, 1759, the British took possession of Quebec, the French withdrawing their troops to Montreal.

With the opening of the river in the spring, De Levis came down from Montreal with an army of seven thousand men. The English moved out with soldierly spirit, and a second battle was fought upon the Plains of Abraham. The English were worsted, and the French began a siege. Both forces waited in quiet for some time, expecting reinforcements. They came to the English first, and De Levis threw his guns into the river and retreated. On the 8th of September the city surrendered. In the terms of capitulation were included Detroit, Michelmackinac and all the French forts farther west. The French fleet, which arrived upon the coast soon after, was entirely destroyed by the British squadron. Canada, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton now belonged to Great Britain.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Warburton's "Conquest of Canada."

FICTION—Hall's "Twice Taken."

Tiffany's "Brandon "

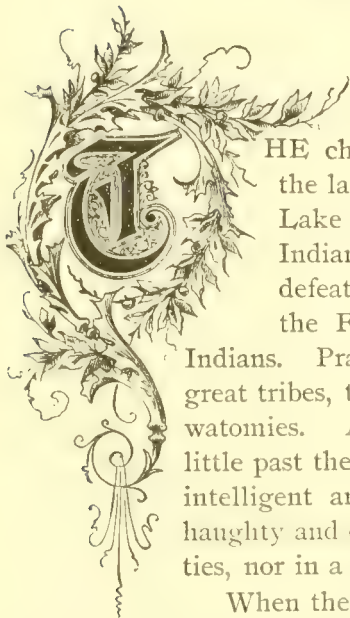


QUEBEC.

CHAPTER XLVII.

A Blow For Liberty.

PONTIAC, CHIEF OF THE OTTAWAS—ARRIVAL OF ROGERS' MEN AT
DETROIT—PONTIAC'S CONSPIRACY—BEGINNING OF
WAR—THE SIEGE OF DETROIT—THE
BATTLE OF BLOODY
BRIDGE.



HE chief of the Ottawas, Pontiac, claimed all the land upon the southern and western sides of Lake Erie. He is said to have commanded his Indians with great skill at the time of Braddock's defeat. In 1746, he and his warriors defended the French with bravery, against the Northern Indians. Practically, he was the principal chief of three great tribes, the Objibewas, the Ottawas, and the Pottawatomies. At the time of which we write he was a little past the prime of life, but was still one of the most intelligent and formidable men of his race. He was haughty and eloquent, not lacking in statesmanlike qualities, nor in a certain poetic imagination.

When the English detachment was sent to take possession of Detroit, under Major Rogers, Pontiac came in person to inquire what right he had to pass through the country. He was told of the conquest of Canada and that the party were on the way to accept the surrender of Detroit. Pontiac retired to turn the matter over in his mind for the night, and on the following day made a speech in which he affirmed his friendliness towards the English and promised that they should be unmolested. That he was sincere in his protestations of friendship is proved by the fact that when Rogers and his famous rangers arrived at the Detroit river, Pontiac persuaded four hundred Detroit Indians, who were lying there in ambush for them, to disperse. Had he not done so, this would have been the last adventure

of that picturesque band of men whose exploits have been the delight of all American boys.

But the English were never so attractive to the Indians as were the French, and after a time the grim old savage, Pontiac, began to long for his more entertaining friends, who had so long lived near him in good fellowship. He could not understand why a large garrison of Frenchmen should lay down their arms and surrender to a handful of English rangers, and he listened with satisfaction to the tales which the French poured into his ears. They said that the great French Father had been asleep, but that he would awaken now and avenge the wrongs of his children. Pontiac, solitary and gloomy, pondered upon this in the depths of the Michigan forests, and laid plans for driving the English from the country. This was to be done by attacking all the forts in a single day, as well as all the frontier settlements. He had heard that a large French fleet was on its way down the St. Lawrence, and he hoped to win the good will of the commander. With him, he would march upon the older English settlements and drive the people back across the Atlantic. Ambassadors were sped to the several Indian nations with a red-stained tomahawk and the wampum war belt. The Senecas, Algonquins, Wyandots and some southern tribes became allies of Pontiac. Each tribe was to dispose of the garrison nearest it and then turn upon the adjacent settlements. On April 27, 1763, Pontiac called a great council on the river Ecorces and addressed his warriors there. He recounted all the wrongs the Indians had suffered at the hands of the English, and he told of a tradition that a Delaware Indian had been allowed to enter the presence of the Great Spirit, who told him that his race must return to the customs and weapons of their ancestors, give up the whisky which the white men had taught them to use, and throw away the implements with which he had tried to chain them to the dull drudgery of civilization. Pontiac assured his friends that the French were coming down the St. Lawrence with a large fleet of soldiers who would stand by them and be their friends. The insurrection was to be on the 7th of May, and Pontiac was to lead the attack on Detroit.

On the 1st he visited the fort with forty warriors, and danced the dance of peace before them. He retired to finish his plans of war. He and one hundred chiefs were to enter the fort for the purpose of holding a council with the commander. Pontiac was to make a speech, and when he presented the wampum belt wrong end foremost, it was to be the signal for the Indians to fall upon the officers and kill them.

The Indians waiting outside about the streets were to do the same deadly work among the soldiers and citizens. The plans were well laid, but on the 5th, one of the English women visiting in Ottawa village to make purchases of maple sugar and venison, saw many warriors cutting off the barrels of their guns with files. She wondered why they could wish the barrels of their guns to be made shorter. There was only one conclusion; they wished to hide them under the folds of their blankets. One of the beautiful young Indian girls who were in the habit of visiting the fort left with so much reluctance on the night before the attack that she was questioned until she confessed the details of the plot. Pontiac made her suffer severely afterward for this treachery to her race.

The force of Pontiac about Detroit was from six hundred to two thousand. The English garrison consisted of one hundred and twenty men. The fort was a square enclosed by a palisade twenty feet high. At each corner was a wooden bastion, with a few light pieces of artillery, and over the gateways were block-houses. Two armed schooners were anchored in the river.

Pontiac came at the appointed time and entered the gate with his warriors. He saw at once that his plans had been discovered. "Why do I see so many of my father's young men standing in the street with their guns?" he asked. Gladwyn, who was commanding, replied, lightly, that they had been out for exercise. Pontiac began his speech, doubtless turning over in his mind the possibility of an attack even now. Once he lifted the wampum belt. Gladwyn replied with a slight movement of his hand. There was a rattle of arms at the door and the roll of a drum. Pontiac sat down in dismayed silence. The Indians were finally conducted to the gate by the soldiers, and ushered out in sullen silence.

Pontiac and three chiefs came back the next day with a calumet and told Gladwyn that evil birds had sung lies in his ear. The following day he came with a large crowd of warriors, to find the gates barred. He was told that he alone would be allowed to enter. The war-whoop which his followers gave was the declaration of hostilities. Some of them ran to the defenceless English houses outside the fort, killed the inhabitants, and shook their bloody scalps at the soldiers. Pontiac's village was hastily moved across the river to the mouth of the creek we now know as Bloody Run, a mile and a half north of the fort. On the 10th he began a regular siege, fighting in the usual savage manner, behind barns and fences, keeping well out of reach of return fire. Two Scotch

officers responded to Pontiac's wish to hold a council with the English. Both were detained as prisoners and one was murdered.

The Wyandots joined Pontiac and the siege was renewed with great vigor. It had taken Gladwyn some time to realize the extent of the conspiracy. But now he removed everything about the fort which could obstruct the sweep of his guns. He carefully economized the provisions, and dug wells in the fort. These wells were not alone needed to provide against thirst, but to extinguish the fires as well, for one of the chief methods of Indian warfare was to tip the arrows with burning tow. Under cover of darkness the friendly Indians across the shore brought over supplies. Pontiac's soldiers had not been prepared for sustained conflict, and before long were short of provisions. The old chief was not lacking in dignified ideas of war and would not permit his men to prey upon the Canadian farms. He made a large number of promissory notes upon birch bark, which were to be exchanged for provisions. After his disastrous war had closed it is said that he redeemed all of these notes.

Reinforcements were on their way up Lake Erie for Gladwyn. He knew of this, and sent one of his schooners to hasten their approach, but the schooner missed them, and they continued to slowly creep up the coast, not knowing of the siege, and were captured by a band of Wyandots, who killed or took as prisoners sixty men. Only two boats escaped.

The Indians hid in the boats which they had captured and forced the crew to sail into the harbor. The Indians hoped to enter the fort by this strategy. At the fort they had watched the approach of the boats with great delight, and the disappointment when they were seen to be laden with Indians, was almost unbearable. The two boats which escaped hastened to Niagara and told their story. An expedition for relief was formed. The Indians made an attempt to capture this also, but it reached the fort in safety.

The approaches to the fort were guarded by the schooners, of which the Indians stood in great fear. They made several attempts to destroy them with fire-rafts, but were not successful. The Wyandots and Pottawatomies exchanged prisoners with Gladwyn and sued for peace, but the Ottawas and Ojibewas kept up the conflict. On the 26th of July a reinforcement of two hundred and eighty men reached Detroit, and revived the spirits of the exhausted garrison. They now felt strong enough to march out from the fort and openly attack the Indian camp. But the Indian never could be made to fight in fair field.

They hid behind every tree and clump of bushes. Dalzell, who led the expedition, could find no enemy, and after going as far as the deepening twilight would permit, turned his men back toward the fort. Then every bush, tree and hill became alive with savages who had lain in ambush. Dalzell was killed. Rogers took possession of a house and defended some of his men there. The cellar of the house was crowded with women and children, and upon the trap-door, which covered it, stood an old man who needed all his little strength and his eloquence to keep the soldiers from rushing, in their terror, into the cellar. Rogers held out until the *batteaux*, which had gone down the river with the killed and wounded, returned. This was called the battle of Bloody Bridge. In it the English lost fifty-nine men and the Indians about twenty. The great desire of the Indians was to keep supplies from reaching the fort. One of the schooners returning to the fort from Niagara was attacked in the Detroit river by a large number of Indians, who swam silently through the water with knives in their teeth. The crew fought them with spears and hatchets, and succeeded in saving the boats from capture, but the captain was killed and several men badly wounded. The boat would have been lost, had not the mate given an order that the magazines should be fired. The Indians understood enough English to take warning. The next expedition which was sent to the fort from Niagara was overtaken by a storm. Seventy men were lost, besides all the store of ammunition.

The Ottawas finally sued for peace, and Pontiac raised the siege in October and returned to his melancholy forest. That portion of the war which he superintended himself had not been successful, but his allies had been more fortunate. At almost every fort in that country the work of destruction had been successfully carried out. Forts Sandusky, St. Joseph and Quatanoir, on the Wabash, were all captured, and in most cases the garrison were murdered. At Michelinackinac, a very crafty plan was laid for the taking of the fort. The Indians invited the officers to witness a game of ball on the plain in front of the fort. From early morning till noon the soldiers looked on, well pleased with the sport. Finally the ball was thrown near the gate of the fort. The Indians made a rush for it, seized the two officers, who were standing near, and bound them, while the savages poured into the fort. Inside were the squaws, with weapons concealed under their blankets. These the men seized and fell upon the soldiers. Seventeen were killed instantly, and six were tortured to death. The English traders were led into captivity. The French, quietly looking on, were not touched.

At Prasqui, near the present town of Erie, Pennsylvania, the fort was besieged for two days and a half. Here the Indians mined the fort and the English were obliged to surrender. They were taken as prisoners to Pontiac's camp. At Fort Le Boeuf, a block-house, in which the garrison had taken refuge, was set on fire, and the garrison of fourteen men dug a hole in the ground in the rear and crept stealthily into the forest, while the Indians stood dancing around in the belief that they were burning to death. The men started for Fort Pitt, but some of them died of hunger by the way. At Fort Venango, on the Alleghany, the garrison was butchered and Lieutenant Gordon slowly tortured to death. Fort Pitt itself was well fortified. It had a good supply of water and provisions, and the attack was not successful. A command was sent out from Philadelphia, under Colonel Henry Boquet, to strengthen the garrison at Fort Pitt. He had five hundred men with him, mostly Highlanders. These marched through a desolate tract of country at the western part of Pennsylvania. Many settlements there had been laid waste and the inhabitants murdered. A fierce attack was made on him near the stream called Brush river, where the men had encamped. His little army was entirely surrounded, and his horses, unused to the blood-curdling shrieks of the Indians, were unmanageable. The Scotchmen fought firmly, rather than bravely, and their very lack of excitement won them the victory. The fight was resumed the next day at the first break of light. The Scotchmen were placed at a terrible disadvantage. They stood in an open space in a compact mass. The Indians were dispersed through the woods and fought from behind trees. Boquet feigned retreat. The Indians supposed that their prey was about to escape, and made a furious attack. This was exactly what Boquet desired. In a short time the Indians were flying before the Scotchmen. The march was resumed, and the force arrived at Fort Pitt, having lost eight officers and one hundred and fifteen men.

In a short time general peace was made, but for many months after the people in the frontier villages lived in terror of their lives. Two thousand whites were killed. Several costly expeditions had been entirely destroyed. Pontiac, still revengeful, tried to start another conspiracy, but failed. He was murdered in 1769 by a Kaskaskia Indian, on the spot where St. Louis now stands.

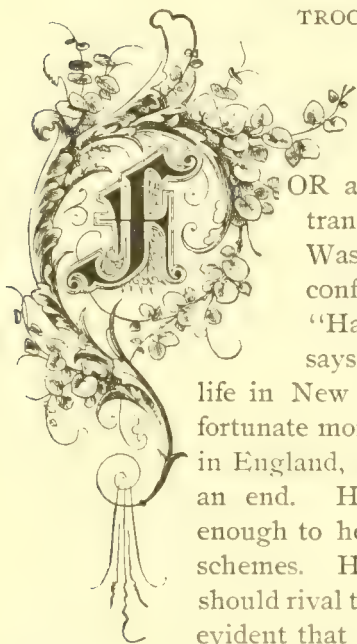
FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Parkman's *Conspiracy of Pontiac*.
DRAMA—A. Macomber's *Pontiac*.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

Cæsar Had His Brutus.

THE STAMP ACT—CONDITION OF THE COLONIES—THE OPPOSITION
TO TAXATION—REPEAL OF THE STAMP ACT—REFUSAL OF
THE ASSEMBLY TO PROVIDE FOR THE
TROOPS SENT OVER BY
ENGLAND.



FOR a time after the close of the war a pleasant tranquility reigned in the colonies. George Washington, writing to a friend in England, confessed there was really nothing to say. "Happy the people whose annals are tiresome," says Montesquieu. For a time it seemed as if life in New England was to resolve itself into this fortunate monotony. But the young King George III, in England, had ideas which brought this tranquility to an end. He believed that the colonies were rich enough to help him in carrying out one of his famous schemes. He wished to build a great palace which should rival the splendor of Versailles. To do this, it was evident that a prodigious sum of money was necessary.

There was no easier way to raise it than by taxing the American colonies. In 1763 a bill was introduced in Parliament which tested the whole question of the possible revenue to be derived from that source. It required that stamps varying in price, none of them less than one shilling, should be placed upon the records of all commercial transactions. An amendment to the sugar act was also introduced. The duty on foreign molasses was changed from six pence a gallon to three pence, and new duties were imposed on coffee, pimento, East India goods, and wines from Madeira and the western islands. George III was not mistaken in thinking that there had been a rapid increase of wealth in the American colonies. Between the years 1765 and 1775 two-thirds of



George Third King of Great Britain

the foreign commerce of Great Britain was that which she conducted with America. Between 1700 and 1760 the value of property in England increased fifty per cent. William Pitt claimed that this was due wholly to the American colonies, and said that Great Britain reaped a profit of two millions a year from them. At this time there were three millions of people in America, and these purchased almost every manufactured article from Great Britain, exporting, in return, fish, tobacco, indigo, rice and naval stores. England sent goods amounting to two million pounds annually to New York and Pennsylvania alone.

But to the indignant Americans who turned the stamp act over in their assemblies, there seemed to be no reason why they should be imposed upon simply because they were prosperous. That peculiar form of lawlessness which was so much stronger and more dignified than law, and which the people of New England had shown before, was thoroughly roused now. Samuel Adams, the leader of the popular party in Boston, inflamed the people by his indignant eloquence. "If our trade may be taxed, why not our lands?" said he. "Why not the produce of our lands, and, in short, everything we possess or make use of? If taxes are laid upon us in any shape, without our having a legal representative where they are laid, are we not reduced from the character of subjects to the miserable state of tributary slaves?" Such speeches, and James Otis' passionate pamphlet on the rights of the colonies, filled every American with courage and a determination to resist. Quietly, and to an extent secretly, every man in America armed himself. The speeches of the assemblies should have fairly warned the English ministers, but they were anxious to gratify the caprice of their half-mad King. A Continental Congress met at New York, in which there were delegates from the nine assemblies to consider what had best be done. Most of the assemblies had already met in the province and had made their individual protests. In Virginia, Patrick Henry had drawn up his famous resolutions denouncing the right of the mother country to tax her colonies. These were warmly opposed, and Henry, rising in the house, cried, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell, George III"—"treason!" cried the men from every part of the house—"may profit by their example," continued Henry, firmly. "If this be treason, make the most of it!"

The Continental Congress at New York was composed of the most distinguished men in the colonies. On the roll were the names of many men who, in the end, sided with the Crown. Among them was General Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts who was president of the

Congress. He and several others were staunch Tories. The resolutions were not impertinent, nor even passionate. They were dignified, moderate, and absolutely firm. The thirteen articles of these resolutions had a single purpose—a protest against taxation. Meanwhile, the piles of stamp paper which were to produce this new revenue arrived in the different sea-ports. The collectors who brought the stamps were hung in effigy and waited on by mobs. Most of them were compelled to resign. In Boston, the mob entered the house of Oliver, the agent, and broke his windows. Then they gathered at the house of his brother-in-law, Governor Hutchinson, one of the richest men in Boston, and threw everything into the street. The militia was called out to arrest the ringleaders, which they made pretense of doing, but released them willingly enough, when they were ordered to do so by the mob. The newspapers were filled with letters of protest from private citizens. The opposition was led chiefly by the “Sons of Liberty,” an association in New York.

The royal governors and the officers under them were very bitter. Lieutenant Cole, of New York, swore that he would cram the stamps down their throats with the sword. The distributor of the stamps in Maryland was obliged to fly to New York, and was finally visited by a delegation from the Sons of Liberty, and forced to take an oath to the effect that he would not resume the duties of his office. In South Carolina, the stamp act was publicly burnt, the bells of Charleston were tolled, and the flags of the ships in the harbor were at half-mast. Nor was it alone the young men, fond of novelty, who conducted these proceedings. The older and more dignified took part in them with equal enthusiasm. The colonies also took more radical and business-like methods of resistance. They agreed among themselves not to import English goods, and orders which had gone forward were countermanded. The retail dealers agreed neither to buy nor sell such goods as were brought into the country. A fair was opened in New York devoted to domestic manufactures. That the growth of wool might not be interfered with, it was determined that no lambs might be used as food. No mourning goods were manufactured in America and it was agreed that they should not be purchased. Some of the ship-masters bringing them over were forced to return with their cargo.

In England there was a new ministry—a ministry which had not yet made up its mind what its attitude should be toward the colonies. For the first time in a year, William Pitt appeared in the House. His speech upon the situation was most sarcastic. He said that Americans



SIR ROBERT PEELE.

were the sons, not the bastards, of England, and closed his speech with the celebrated words: "The honorable gentleman tells us that America is obstinate; America is almost in open rebellion. Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted. Three millions of people, so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest." Benjamin Franklin was present, and was examined thoroughly on the question. The stamp act was repealed. Throughout the colonies this was received with the greatest enthusiasm. Joy bells were rung in the churches, liberty poles raised, and pictures of Conway and Barre hung in Faneuil Hall. Conway was the man who had brought in the resolution for the repeal of the act. Barre was the man, who, when the stamp act was passing through Parliament, replied to the remark that the colonies had been planted by the care of England, with this indignant speech: "They planted by your care! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They nourished up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department, and another who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some member of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions and to prey upon them; men whose behavior on many occasions has caused the blood of those Sons of Liberty to recoil within them!" Statues of George III and Pitt were erected in Virginia and Maryland. In New York, statues of the King and Pitt were also erected and liberty poles raised, at the bases of which hogsheads of punch were drank.

But the people had rejoiced too soon. The habits of loyalty was still strong in them, and they desired to have cordial relations with the home government. They had taken the repeal of the stamp act for more than it really meant. The sugar act was not modified, and still collected a revenue. It was still required of the colonies that they should provide fire, candles, vinegar, salt, bedding, utensils for cooking, beer, cider and wine for all the troops who might be sent to America. Again the ministry of England had changed, and now had at its head a man who was determined to tax the colonies as he pleased. He insisted that military garrisons should be kept up in all the large colonial towns, and that they should be supported by colonial taxation. In June of 1768, Sir Henry Moore, the Governor of New York, sent a message to the assembly, asking them to make provisions for the troops, then on their way to the colony. The assembly refused. They were willing, they said, to bear a share in the support of the troops on

their way through the province, as they had always done, of their own free will. But they would contribute nothing to the quartering of troops in the colony. Parliament ordered that all the legislative rights of New York should be stopped until this command had been complied with. The sympathy of all the colonies was with New York. At this time port duties were levied on wine, wools and fruit, if shipped direct from Spain and Portugal, and upon glass, paper, lead, colors and tea. This revenue was to be used for the support of the civil officers of the colonies. It will be remembered that the assemblies had always insisted upon the right to care for the royal governors in the way they considered best, and that the sum given to the Governor annually, depended partly upon the prosperity of the province, and partly upon the benefit which the Governor had actually been during the year. A letter of supplication was promptly sent to the King. The reply was a letter from the Secretary of State of England, to the General Court of Massachusetts, commanding them to withdraw the resolution which gave birth to the letter. If they refused, the government was to dissolve the court. The assemblies of the other colonies received word that they would also be dissolved if they were disobedient. A letter so insulting and patronizing showed the absolute ignorance which England was in regarding the character of the American men with whom they had to deal.

Four regiments of soldiers were then quartered in the town of Boston. Every man was curious to know why they were there. Americans could not grasp the idea of a standing army. They believed that the soldiers were there for no reason but to menace the community. The idea entertained in England, that it was a compliment to have troops stationed at a town, could not be understood by them. This Puritan town, forced by law into habits which were almost ascetic, and ruled by a government which was largely religious, could not tolerate the gayety, not to say debauchery, of the soldiers. The town had refused to prepare quarters for them. At a town meeting it was requested that every inhabitant should provide himself with fire-arms for sudden danger, in the case of a war with France. There was, as everyone knew, no likelihood of a war with France, but the fiction was sustained, and every man obeyed the bidding. When the troops arrived, one regiment was quartered in Faneuil Hall, another in the town hall, and one encamped on the Common. The Irish regiments, which arrived, a few days later, were added to those on the Common. A fleet of eighty men-of-war, having in all over one hundred and eighty guns, was

anchored off the town. It was with difficulty that the wisest among the Bostonians prevented an outbreak. The people were not only willing to fight, but they were anxious to do so.

The very boys shared the popular discontent. There had been quite a quarrel between them and the soldiers, for the soldiers were in the habit of destroying the snow-slides which the boys had prepared for their sleds. The boys appealed in vain to the captain, and finally went to the British general. He said: "Have your fathers been teaching rebellion, and sent you here to exhibit it?" "Nobody sent us here," said one of the boys. "We have never injured nor insulted your troops, but they have been spoiling our snow-slides so that we cannot use them any more. We complained, and they called us young rebels and told us to help ourselves, if we could. We told the captains of this and they laughed at us. Yesterday our slides were destroyed once more, and we will bear it no longer." The general ordered the damage repaired and told General Gage about the matter, who said that it was impossible to beat the notion of liberty out of people who had it planted in them from childhood.

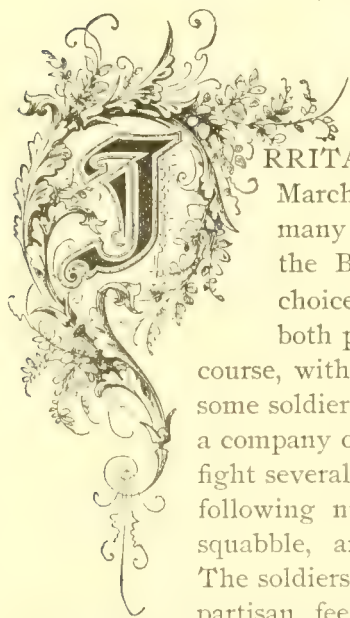
FOR FURTHER READING.

- BIOGRAPHY. Leving's "The Hundred Boston Orators."
Tadler's "Life of Odis."
Wells' "Life of Samuel Adams."
Sparks' "Franklin."
Adams' "Life of John Adams."
Wirt's "Patrick Henry."

CHAPTER XLIX.

The Boston Tea-Drinkers.

TROUBLE IN BOSTON—"THE BOSTON MASSACRE"—THE TEA TAX—
ATTITUDE OF GOVERNOR HUTCHINSON—THE BOSTON
"TEA PARTY"—THE BOSTON
PORT BILL.



IRITATION in Boston reached its height on March 3, 1770. For a long time there had been many quarrels among the common soldiery and the Boston seamen. Probably there was little choice between the ignorance and brutality of both parties, but the popular sympathies were, of course, with the Americans. On the evening of the 3d, some soldiers had agreed to hold a sort of free fight with a company of rope-makers. In the rough hand-to-hand fight several men on both sides were wounded. On the following night an attempt was made to renew the squabble, and it was suppressed with some difficulty. The soldiers were resentful and naturally had a strong partisan feeling. On the night of March 5th, two young men tried to pass a sentinel at the foot of Cornhill. The sentinel told them that they could not pass. A struggle followed and a crowd gathered. The sentinel was snow-balled. A file of troops was sent out to defend the sentry, and succeeded in getting him into the barracks safely. But the blood of the crowd was up. The actual indignities which had been heaped upon them made them anxious for revenge, and they can hardly be criticised if their methods were petty. Another sentinel was espied, who had, it was said, knocked down a Boston boy a few days before. The ill-nature of the mob was turned against him. He tried to enter the building and escape, but found the door locked, and was forced to call for the main guard. Six men were sent to his relief. Captain Preston, the officer of the day, was at an

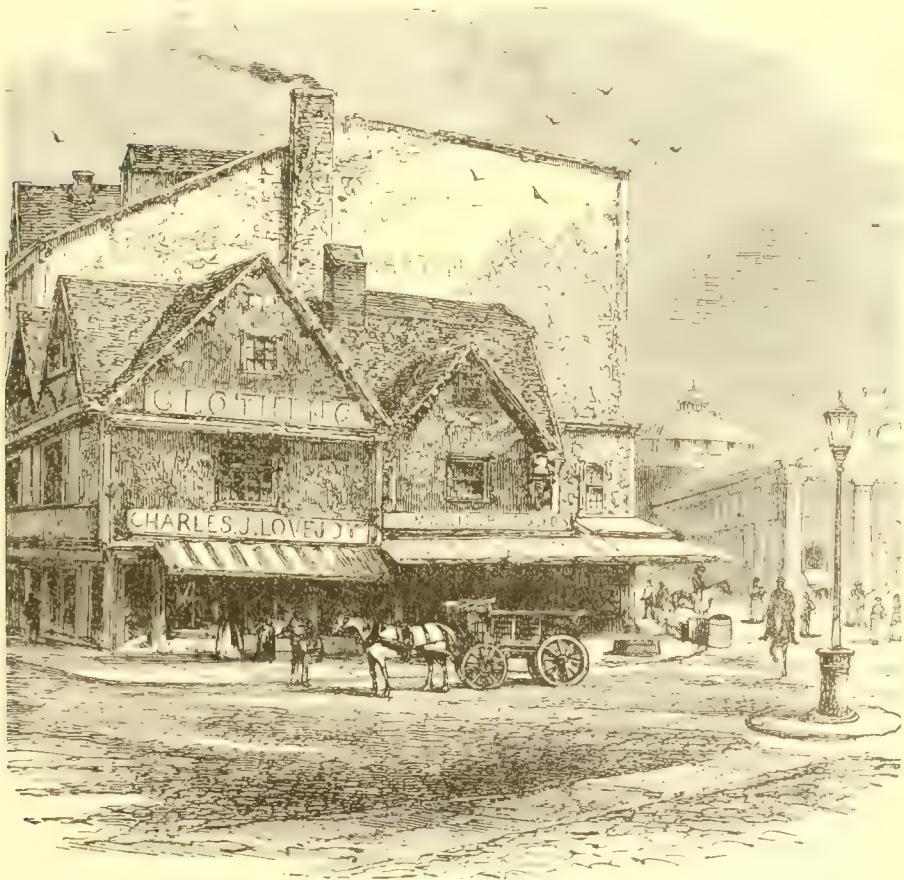
entertainment in the city. A messenger was dispatched for him. The mob grew every minute, and the bells throughout the city were set ringing as if for fire. Captain Preston and six more men came on the ground. The men presented only their bayonets by way of defense against the mob, and fell back in front of the custom-house. They were ordered not to fire, and, in spite of the missiles and epithets hurled at them, managed to control themselves. But when a soldier received a severe blow from a club, he lost his sense of discipline, leveled his gun, and fired. Seven or eight more soldiers followed his example. When the mob had fled, three men were found dead on the ground. Two others were mortally wounded, and six slightly. The exploit afforded the Bostonians a certain grim satisfaction. The strain upon their patience had ended. The longed-for opportunity for action had come. The twenty-ninth regiment answered the beat of arms, and soon formed in King street. From the balcony of the State House, Governor Hutchinson, a man of old New England blood, promised that a thorough investigation should be made. Captain Preston, before daylight, surrendered himself and was placed in jail. The selectmen lost no time in waiting upon the Governor and assuring him that the troops must be removed from town. The Governor replied that the regiment that had had the fight with the rope-makers might be marched to the castle. This answer was carried to the town meeting, where the selectmen awaited it, in the Old South Church. Samuel Adams said that if there was authority for removing one regiment, there was authority to remove two. "Nothing short of the total evacuation of the town by all the regular troops," said he, "will satisfy the public mind and preserve the peace of the province." Hutchinson knew the humor of the New England men, and though all England laughed at him afterward for his compliance, he had all the troops removed. It delayed, beyond a doubt, the War of the Revolution, just five years. Preston was tried for murder, but was acquitted. Two soldiers were found guilty of manslaughter and sentenced to be branded in the hand.

In the English cabinet it was decided that tea was still to be retained as a subject of taxation. An effort was made by the wiser members of Parliament to repeal this in less than a year after the act had been passed, but Lord North carried it by a majority. Lord North, who was minister, and the "Friends of the King," were now directing English affairs. The half-distraught young King was in no position to be either wise or generous, had he wished to be so; in truth, he was seriously out of patience with America, and was well pleased to vent his

irritation upon her. The tranquility which had followed the removal of the troops from Boston was soon disturbed by the poor policy of Lord North. The Crown of England was interested in the prosperity of the East India Company. The United States steadily refused to import tea from England, and as a consequence the East India Company found itself burdened with seventeen million pounds of tea in its English store houses. To save it from bankruptcy the government lent it a million and a half of money. The directors of the East India Company wished to be allowed to land the tea free in America. They knew much better than the English minister the humor of the men with whom they had to deal. The King insisted there must be one tax to keep up the right. The tax was only three pence a pound—half of that which was paid in England—but the English subject had the right to cast his vote upon the matter. American colonies were not represented. In this distinction lay all the difference between slavery and freedom. To their great chagrin the people in Boston discovered, at this time, that their Governor, Hutchinson, was writing letters which they considered treasonable. He talked about the establishment of a patrician order, and in one letter said that there must be an abridgement of English liberties among the people of the colony. These letters were shown to Franklin, who was in England, and he obtained permission to send them to America. The Massachusetts assembly begged the King to remove Hutchinson and the Lieutenant-Governor from office. Edmund Burke, the young English statesman, says the council which met to consider this letter had the fullest meeting he ever remembered. Wedderburn, a lawyer, and one of Lord North's favorites, spoke for three hours against the petition, and turned a storm of personal abuse upon Franklin, who was present. Walpole and Pitt made the day famous—one by an epigram, the other by a reproof. Franklin was quiet and apparently undisturbed, but he laid aside a suit of velvet clothes which he wore that day with the remark that he would never put them on again until Wedderburn's insults were avenged. It was ten years before he enjoyed that privilege, and then, as Plenipotentiary of America, he signed, with the English Plenipotentiary, the treaty by which England acknowledged the independence of Franklin's country. To add to the excitement of the council in England, news had just reached them that three cargoes of the taxed tea which had been sent to Boston had been thrown overboard.

The *Dartmouth*, the first of the tea vessels, had arrived in Boston on November 24, 1774. A town meeting was called the next day at

the Old South Meeting-house. Samuel Adams moved that the tea should not be landed, that it should be sent back to the place from which it came, and that no duty should be paid on it. These resolutions were passed unanimously. The owner and master were directed that they were neither to enter the tea at the custom-house nor to land it. A watch was put on the ships, and six horsemen were appointed



OLD BUILDING AT BOSTON, WHERE THE TEA PROTEST WAS HATCHED

to notify the country at once of any effort to land it by force. In every town, it will be remembered, were a company of minutemen, well equipped and drilled, who were marksmen of no mean order.

It was understood that in twenty days from the arrival of the first ship, the collector would make a formal demand for duties. The twenty days passed and the Governor would not permit the ship to

return to London, even if she had desired to do so. Ships-of-war crowded the channels so that no vessel without a pass could go by the castle outward bound. The town meeting, which was held daily at the Old South Church, had rapidly increased, and on the twentieth day there was a throng. Messengers were sent to the Governor to make one last inquiry as to whether he would give the pass permitting the ship with its lading to leave the harbor or not. He refused. Samuel Adams arose in his seat, and said, with significant emphasis: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country." Then there was a rush for the wharves, and in the hurrying crowd were seen two bodies of young men, disguised as Mohawk Indians. They took possession of the tea ship, and bidding the captain furnish them with ropes and tackle, they elevated the chests on board, split them open and poured the tea into the harbor. There was no noise, no shouting or rejoicing. The matter was too serious. Every man who stood there, gravely watching the performance, knew what it meant, and that the responsibility assumed by the act was not small. It was nearly dawn when the young men had finished. Who they were no one to this day has ever learned.

One man named Captain O'Connor, a devoted tea-drinker, tried to fill his pockets with the tea. Some more patriotic person seized him as he leaped from the vessel, and Captain O'Connor left the skirts of his coat in the hands of the man who tried to stop him. O'Connor's coat was nailed to the whipping-post next day as a punishment for his lack of public spirit. Boston was not the only place which refused to accept the taxed tea. The ship sent to Philadelphia was stopped before she reached the city, and the captain was forced to turn her toward home. The tea sent to Charleston was landed, but was purposely stored in damp cellars. It would be safe to say that not one cup of tea was ever made from that which North tried to force upon the American colonies. On March 14, 1775, North introduced the Boston port bill, which, by way of punishment for the insubordination of the place, closed the port. After June 18th no person was to be allowed to load or unload any ship in the harbor. The council was hereafter to be appointed by the crown and the magistrates by the Governor. Government was provided for Quebec and all persons who had taken part in the late disturbance were to be tried in England.

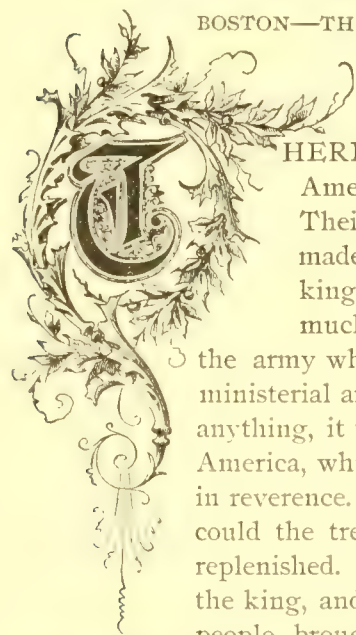
FOR FURTHER READING:

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|---------|---|
| HISTORY | Bord's "Boston Massacre" |
| | Scudders "Boston Town" |
| POETRY | The Boston Tea Party See Ford's Poems of History. |
| | Charles T. Brook's "The Old Thirteen." |
| | Philip Frenlaw's "An Ancient Prophecy." |

CHAPTER L.

The Blood of Patriots.

THE FIRST BLOOD OF THE REVOLUTION—THE MEN OF BILLERICA—
FIGHT AT CONCORD AND LEXINGTON—THE SIEGE OF
BOSTON—THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.



HERE was never a time when the people of the American colonies liked to be called traitors. Their habits of loyalty to the King of England made them lay all blame of oppression upon the king's ministers. The bills which had caused so much dissatisfaction were called ministerial bills; the army whose presence so outraged them was called a ministerial army. Yet, if George III was determined in anything, it was to subdue and humiliate his colonies in America, which he deemed woefully arrogant and lacking in reverence. Besides, from no other source, he believed, could the treasury of England be so easily and rapidly replenished. The pushing of this policy on the part of the king, and the sturdy resistance on the part of the people, brought matters to a crisis. General Gage sent a small detachment of soldiers to Marshfield, in Plymouth county, for the purpose of protecting Tories there from insult. The people made no resistance or complaint about the matter, and General Gage gathered confidence from their apparent indifference. On the twenty-sixth of February, 1775, he sent out Colonel Leslie with a considerable company of men, to seize some cannon at Salem. The soldiers landed at Marblehead on Sunday morning, while the people were all at church, but the news of their landing was hurriedly carried to Salem by a messenger loyal to the American cause. The soldiers were allowed to march unmolested through the town of Salem, but when they came to the North Bridge, beyond which the cannon lay, they found that it had been drawn up—for it was a draw-bridge. The

people standing there quietly told Colonel Leslie that it was a private way, and that no one could be allowed to use it without the owner's consent. Colonel Leslie's reply was to put his men on board a couple of scows. The owners of these scows jumped into them and began to scuttle the boats. The soldiers drove them out with their bayonets. In this way the first blood of the Revolution was shed. There were no further hostilities then. The minister of Salem had a short talk with Colonel Leslie, and got him to accept a compromise. The draw-bridge was lowered. Colonel Leslie and his men walked over it and back again—but without the cannon. Then he retreated to Marblehead, and to Boston, while about him, as he retreated, sprang up the ready minute-men, who did nothing, however, but watch him. To detail all the irritations which deepened the feeling of resentment on both sides would be tedious. Not only was the feeling of anger steadily increasing between the English and Americans, but a stricter line was being drawn between the Conservatives and Radicals. A dispute as to where loyalty ended, and treason began, divided neighborhoods, churches and families. The Provincial Congress at Massachusetts was quietly providing arms and provisions. The magazines of the province were at Concord and Worcester. Almost every town had its own little magazine. The confidence of these little hamlets is something really amazing. What they lacked in strength, they made up in determination. At Billerica, a citizen had bargained with a soldier for a gun. There was an act against trading with soldiers, and the citizen was locked up all night by the officers of the guard, and in the morning was tarred and feathered, without a hearing. The soldiers paraded him through the streets with a placard, on which was written, "American Liberty; or, a Specimen of Democracy." There were fifty voters in Billerica. These sent this portentous paper to General Gage: "May it please your excellency, we must tell you we are determined, if the innocent inhabitants of our country towns must be interrupted by soldiers in their lawful intercourse with the town of Boston, and treated with most brutish ferocity, we shall, hereafter, use a different style of petition than complaint." These petty defiances were really not without their effect upon General Gage. He was fully convinced that the country was a hot-bed of rebellion, and that it could not be taught a lesson too soon. He sent two officers to reconnoitre about Concord and Worcester, where the magazines of the province were. On Tuesday evening, the eighteenth of April, eight hundred men were given instructions to seize and destroy the guns, ammunition and stores at Concord. The troops marched

at night. They left Boston, under command of Colonel Smith, embarking at the water edge of the Common. They landed at Leshmoor's, which is now called Cambridge, and marched across the salt marshes, striking the road to Menotomy. This excursion had long been expected. The Americans had prepared for it. Doctor Warren had returned to Concord from the meeting of the Provincial Congress at Boston. As soon as Gage launched his boats, Warren sent word to Hancock and Adams by Paul Revere. Paul Revere was a coppersmith and engraver. He had been one of the thirty mechanics to patrol the streets of Boston at night all through the winter, in order to watch the movements of the English troops. Revere carried his message to Hancock, and passing through Charlestown, agreed, with a number of gentlemen there, that if the British started out by sea, two lanterns should be shown in the North Church steeple, and if by land, one as a signal. On the night that General Gage moved, Warren sent in great haste for Revere and begged him to set off for Lexington. He took his coat and boots with him for his ride and was rowed across the river to Charlestown. The night was clear and frosty, with stars overhead. Revere found a good horse and waited for the signals. At eleven o'clock, two lanterns were hung in the belfry of the Old North Church. Revere began his famous ride. At every farm house, in every town, the people were aroused. At Lexington he told Hancock and Adams. Here, also, he was joined by Dr. Prescott and William Dawes. On the way, Dawes and Prescott stopped to alarm a house, and Revere was taken prisoner by four English officers. Dawes was also detained, but Prescott escaped to ride on with the news. Colonel Smith, at the head of the English detachment, had made every effort to keep the news from spreading. When he found that the alarm had been given, he sent to Boston for reinforcements. As he had taken all the boats with him which were at the command of General Gage, the reinforcements were obliged to march by land in a roundabout way. General Gage's men were not used to rapid action of this sort, and it was nine o'clock in the morning before they had even gathered upon the Common ready for the march. It was very different, however, with the minutemen of the colonies. Waking and sleeping, for weeks, they had thought of nothing but such an opportunity. The Lexington minutemen were soon drawn up in array. They were under the command of John Parker, a veteran of the French war. Parker saw that his men were largely outnumbered, and tried to withdraw his men. Colonel Piteairn, who commanded the column, rushed forward, crying, "Disperse, rebels, disperse!" No

other words, however carefully selected, could have so inflamed the Americans. But there was a great desire on both sides not to have the responsibility for beginning the war. To the last the commanders of both forces ordered the men not to fire. Both commanders always insisted afterwards that their men did not fire first. What really happened is not known, nor does it especially matter. There was a general firing on both sides. The shots from the Americans hurt no one. The firing of the English killed and wounded many of the Lexington party. Seven were killed and ten wounded out of the little force of seventy, that, in the grey light of the early morning, fought on Lexington Common. The English troops pressed on to Concord. The whole country was alarmed and the people were rising rapidly. There are traditions still in Middlesex and Worcester counties, of a man on a white horse, who rode faster than any mortal man could ride, to say that the English had left Boston and the war had begun. The minutemen were cautious, and seeing that they were far outnumbered, they formed upon a bold hill about eighty rods behind the village of Lexington, near the "North Bridge." There Colonel Barrett joined them as soon as he had done all that was possible in the way of concealing the ammunition and supplies in the storehouse. Colonel Smith, the English commander, began his duties by destroying three new cannons, which Colonel Barret had been unable to remove. To this he added the not very dignified action of breaking up some wooden spoons and trenchers. He set fire to a number of buildings—among them the court house. In the midst of all this, shots were heard at the North Bridge, where the minutemen had taken their stand. Some English soldiers had been stationed on the bridge and the officers of the minutemen decided to drive them away. It was the Lincoln minutemen who volunteered to clear the bridge. "There is not a man in my company that is afraid," said Captain Davis. The column was ordered to pass the bridge without firing, but if attacked, to return the fire. They marched to the air of "The White Cockade." When they were within a short distance of the bridge the English fired three volleys. Two captains were killed. One of them was Davis, who, had he lived, might have done much good to the American cause. The English were forced to retreat, and the minutemen crossed the bridge. The militia, gathering in the town, joined as rapidly as they could the main force upon the hill. In one way the Provincials had decidedly the better of the Englishmen. They knew every inch of the ground. The fords, the passes between the hills, the irregular roads through the

forest were as well known to them as if they had been the square of a city. The way in which these determined, but raw companies of men poured down into Lexington never ceased to amaze the Englishmen. As Smith marched back from Concord, he found every cross-road held by the Americans.

"They are trained," wrote General Gage, "to protect themselves behind stone walls; they seem to drop from the skies." Smith was badly wounded. His men returned to Lexington—a march of nearly eight miles—in two hours. The retreat from Lexington to Boston was a rout. There was not then, and there never could be, a question about English discipline or bravery, but now the men had no choice but to retreat in rapid disorder. The road seemed to be lined with men, between which the panting English had to run. Lord Percy, with the reinforcements, met them away below Lexington and guarded them with field-pieces, that they might rest for a time. They laid on the ground panting, in the midst of a hollow square he formed to shield them. The sun was going down when they reached Charlestown Neck, which leads into Boston. Beacon Hill was crowded with people watching for their return. The English posted their sentries on their side of Charlestown Neck and the Americans rested on the other side. The militia were ordered to lie on their arms at Cambridge. In that dreadful march the English lost sixty-five killed, one hundred and seventy-eight wounded and twenty-six missing. The loss of the Americans was forty-nine killed, thirty-six wounded and five missing.

The minutemen continued to pour down. They were stationed at Cambridge. The news of the attack at Lexington was carried from province to province. From New York it was sent to Virginia, from Virginia to the Carolinas, from the Carolinas to Georgia, while other messengers carried it in haste to Maine, New Hampshire and the "Grants," as Vermont was then called. When General Gage's forces were taken back to the barracks at Charlestown, the American army was in a condition to besiege Boston. All through the winter the patriots had been laying plans for the removing of the people from Boston in the event of a siege. They now asked permission of General Gage to take thirty families from the town daily. This he consented to, but the Tories of Boston finally persuaded him that if the American Whigs all left the city, they (the English) would probably burn the town. General Gage withdrew his consent to the evacuation, and the militia were obliged to besiege a town in which their own kinsmen were still living. Minutemen were posted in Cambridge, just outside of

Charlestown Neck, and in Roxbury. Works were thrown up on the Charles river and on the salt marshes. The only egress from Boston was guarded by a strong fort. General Artemas Ward, of Shrewsbury, was the chief officer of the American forces. Under him were Spencer, of Connecticut, Green, of Rhode Island, and Folsom, of New Hampshire. The works were all planned by Henry Knox, a young Boston bookseller, who had long been interested in military studies. He was helped by Gridley, a veteran of the French war. On the 4th of May there was a rumor that General Gage intended to march out, and all the minutemen near Boston were called into service, but nothing came of the matter, except that General Gage was given a chance to see how large a reserve force there was at the command of the enemy. On the 13th of May, General Israel Putnam marched an army of thirteen hundred men from Cambridge to Charlestown Neck, and from Charlestown to the ferry there. On the 27th, Putnam led a skirmish at an island northeast of Boston, in the harbor. The English, by this raid, lost a large number of sheep and cattle, besides a sloop and several men. There were several skirmishes of this character, in which the English were generally worsted. The Americans desired to get all the cattle off the islands and to provision themselves as well as possible for the coming conflict. In two of these skirmishes alone, Gage lost thirteen hundred sheep. On the 25th of May, Generals Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne came over from England with large reinforcements. When they reached Newport harbor they met a vessel, of which they asked the news. When they learned that Boston was being held by an army of ten thousand, and that the English garrison of five thousand was permitting the siege to continue, General Burgoyne cried, "Ten thousand peasants keep five thousand of the King's troops shut up? Let us get in and we will soon find elbow-room." After this, Burgoyne was oftener called "elbow-room" than anything else.

Boston is commanded by Charlestown on the north and by Dorchester heights on the south. Both parties were ambitious to occupy these heights. The English general laid explicit plans for the occupation of both of them. While the Englishmen were making their soldierly plans, the Americans, with less system, were marching to take possession of them. They desired to fortify Bunker Hill and command the harbor. After much consultation they finally fortified a spur of Bunker Hill, which was called Reed's Farm, and from which guns could sweep the harbor more effectually than they would if placed on the main hill. This hill was well fortified. Colonel Gridley marked out the lines of a

redoubt. An earthwork extended for a hundred rods to the north and stopped at the marshy place at the north side of the hill, where the marsh was thought a sufficient obstacle. This work was begun at mid-



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

night and progressed steadily and quietly by the bright moonlight. It was some time after day-break before the commander of an English frigate saw the new fortification, and awoke the town with the fire

which he opened upon them. General Gage was soon up and talking with his officers about what had best be done. He was a brave man even to rashness. He decided to attack the American redoubt in front. He had been greatly reinforced since the day of Lexington, and had with him a reliable corps of generals, in whom he placed great confidence. But they were not ready to attack until the afternoon, and the American works were being strengthened every hour. Few of the Englishmen had been under fire, and at the first attack they broke ranks and ran. The second attack was as fatal, but in the third a weak spot was discovered in the American lines. This was pressed upon from the rear as well as the front. There would still have been no need of yielding upon the part of the Americans, had not their supply of powder given out. As it was, the Provincial forces were withdrawn to Bunker Hill. The English did not follow. From first to last the patriots had conducted the matter with great discretion. They had had the courage to stand still until the English were within a few feet of them and to be fired upon without replying until they could do so with effect. The enthusiastic American officers, most of whom had hung over the pages of Frederick the Great, knew almost as well what was the best policy as if they had had practical experience. It is said that at the battle of Prague the Prussian order was "no firing until you see the whites of their eyes." Prescott, who had studied the memoirs of the wars of Frederick the Great, gave this order at Bunker Hill, with the added instruction to "fire low" and to "fire at their waist-bands." That their small supply of powder held out so long was owing entirely to this economy, which required far more courage than vigorous action would have done.

The victory had been won at a terrible cost. The English had a force at the beginning of the battle of two thousand five hundred men, of whom one thousand and fifty-four were killed and wounded. Howe said, "They may talk of their Mindens and their Fontenoy's, but there was no such firing there." Among those killed was the brave Warren—who became a general on the very day of his death. In the fifty-second company, led by Howe, every man was killed or wounded. From that time till the close of the war, seven years later, the English were always careful of leading their troops against entrenched men. The American loss was one hundred and fifty killed, two hundred and seventy wounded and thirty prisoners. In a sense, the battle of Bunker Hill decided the war. For the future there could be no drawing back. The English were put upon their metal. They no longer deluded them-

selves with the belief that they were trying to quell a party of dissatisfied farmers. It was no longer possible for any man in the colonies to remain neutral. Personal matters were lost sight of. The money, time and brains of every one in the United Colonies were given up now to a struggle for the overthrow of oppression.

FOR FURTHER READING:

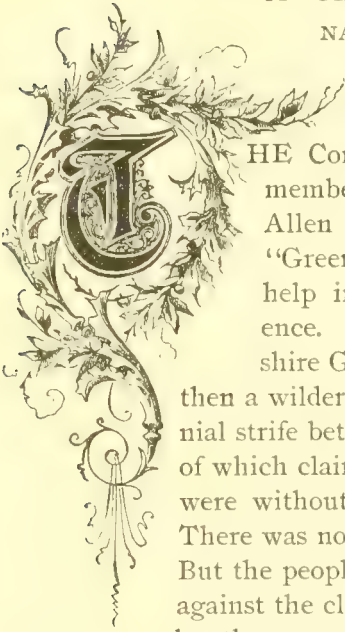
- POETRY—Longfellow's "Ride of Paul Revere."
S. R. Bartlett's "Concord Fight."
Emmons' "The Battle of Bunker Hill."
Sidney Lainer's "Battle of Lexington."
Geo. H. Calvert's "Bunker Hill."
W. C. Bryant's "'76."
DRAMA—Breckenridge's "Bunker Hill."
J. Burke's "Bunker Hill."



CHAPTER LI.

Liberty or Death.

ETHAN ALLEN AND THE GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS—SURRENDER OF
TICONDEROGA—WASHINGTON CHOSEN COMMANDER-IN-
CHIEF—THE LACK OF POWDER—RECALL
OF GENERAL GAGE—SMALL
NAVAL CONQUESTS.



THE Continental Congress met on May 10th. Its members did not know that far in the north Ethan Allen and a band of Vermonters, known as the "Green Mountain Boys," were making efforts to help in the establishment of American independence. The country known as the New Hampshire Grants, otherwise our State of Vermont, was then a wilderness. For years it had been the site of colonial strife between New Hampshire and New York, both of which claimed the territory. The people of the grants were without regular government and had no village. There was not even a country store in the entire territory. But the people had formed a league for mutual protection against the claims of New York. This league was known by the name of the "Green Mountain Boys." They had a rude military organization which showed such systematic resistance to the law that a price was set upon the heads of the leaders. Ticonderoga and Crown Point, now held by the English, were considered by the people of the grants as the gates to New York. The officers of the Crown, who so frequently made their unjust demands on the farms scattered about the sides of the Green Mountains, made their headquarters at Ticonderoga, and the indignation of the Green Mountain Boys was especially leveled at that garrison. The first tidings of war that reached the North made the men anxious to do their part in freeing the country from the British tyranny which they had felt so

keenly. John Brown, of Pittsfield, a lawyer, and one of the leading patriots, made a journey through the grants to Canada, for the purpose of learning what the sentiments of the Canadians were in regard to the approaching struggle. On returning to his home he felt justified in applying to the Committee of Safety, in Boston, for help. The stores at Ticonderoga were coveted, and Connecticut and Western Massachusetts were as anxious as the people of the grants to conquer the fort, which, it was understood, was thinly garrisoned and in a decayed condition. Colonel Parsons, of Connecticut, and Captain Benedict Arnold got three hundred pounds from the treasury on their own responsibility and set off with two men, one of whom had been an engineer in the British service. They conveyed northward permission from the Congress of Connecticut to lead the Green Mountain Boys against Ticonderoga. In the meantime, Ethan Allen, who had long been the chief of the Green Mountain Boys, had made ready for an attack. All the roads leading to the lake were guarded to prevent any one from carrying news to the fort. He knew nothing of the scheme which Benedict Arnold had laid, and on May 8, 1775, started with one hundred and forty men to go to the lake opposite Ticonderoga.

His plans had been craftily laid. A man by the name of Phelps had disguised himself as a countryman, and entered the fort on the pretext of wanting his face shaved. In a manner of great stupidity and curiosity he asked all the questions he wished, and left without being suspected. Thirty men had been detailed by Allen to capture the British camp and then to drop down the lake and join him. Allen had reached the point he desired, when Benedict Arnold came hurrying to the camp and announced that he was colonel and commander-in-chief of all the party. The officers took him into their confidence, showed him their plans, and tried to win his co-operation. Allen was in a hurry for action, and feared unless they moved quickly they would not be able to surprise the fort. Arnold insisted on taking entire command. Ethan Allen, brave, vain, and headstrong, was not likely to yield at the head of men whom he had organized. At length it was proposed that the two men should march together at the head of the column. This compromise was accepted, and a force of eighty-three men marched upon the fort. The garrison was asleep, and Allen hastened to the quarters of Captain Delaplace. The Captain leaped out of bed, crying: "By what authority?" "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," said Allen. It doubtless went against the grain of the experienced soldier to yield to an uncouth,

awkward braggart, such as Allen must have seemed to him. But the garrison was asleep, himself unarmed, undressed, and at disadvantage. There was nothing for it but surrender. The stores and military material, including one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, were captured. Crown Point was taken a little later.

The Continental Congress, during its session at Philadelphia, chose as Commander-in-chief of the American forces, George Washington, of Virginia. Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, was to be his Major-General. Gates, of Virginia, his Adjutant-General. Charles Lee, an English officer, and Schuyler and Putnam, were also Major-Generals. Washington and Gates hastened to Cambridge, hearing on their way of the battle of Bunker Hill. It was the 2d of July when Washington and his friends arrived at Cambridge, and on the 4th of July he assumed command. His hurried but thorough investigation of the army, its plans and materials, showed him that their great danger lay in a lack of powder. In the thirteen States there was hardly enough for one general action. The apothecary shops in New York were searched for saltpetre. Letters were written in all directions, asking that it might be sent to headquarters, if only in the smallest quantities. A man of less tact than Washington might have started many feuds in the army for he had difficulty in getting his officers and Congress to always work in harmony. Unlike many of the men about him, he was a gentleman of high breeding, cultivated, politic, and experienced. The reputation which he had of being the best statesman and the richest man in Virginia won him the admiration of the people of the southern colonies, while, on the other hand, his directness and simplicity of speech, his gravity and sensible caution, endeared him to the northern men.

An attack from the English lines was dreaded. The Americans feared to be outnumbered. Of the sixteen thousand seven hundred and seventy-one New Englanders, nearly two thousand were sick or absent from duty. The American army was divided by the Charles river, over which there was but one small and insecure bridge. Orders were given to keep the minutemen in the towns in constant readiness and to sustain a thorough drill. But the English Generals had no intention of moving. The strain on them at Bunker Hill had been greater than the Americans guessed. The heat of the summer was hard on the wounded. In England it was thought that Gage was inexcusably languid, and he was recalled and practically disgraced. These matters hindered the attack of the English, which hindrance the

devoted New England men considered nothing less than providential. The Americans were making every effort to procure powder, lead, clothing and tents. Benjamin Franklin was on the Committee of Safety, in Philadelphia, and he was among the most active in the attempts to provide these necessary articles. Robert Livingstone, of New York, established a powder mill so secretly that none of the English spies round about found it out until Livingstone made a raid on the government's stock of saltpetre and carried it off. The Committee of Safety, in Georgia, got hold of a supply of powder intended for the Florida Indians. Several hundred barrels were captured from a trading vessel in the Gulf of Mexico. An attack was made on Bermuda and a goodly quantity secured there. In New Orleans, Oliver Pollock, an American, was sending powder to Pittsburg by the river. As soon as the English cruisers were taken away from the coast at the approach of autumn, the government sent an eighty-ton vessel to Bordeaux to buy powder on the account of "The Continent." The lead mines of Connecticut had been worked some, and the products were now used for ammunition. By the press of necessity a little navy was being started. On May 5th the people of New Bedford and Dartmouth, irritated at the *Falcon*, one of the British sloops of war, which hung about the coast, recaptured a vessel with fifteen prisoners which the *Falcon* had previously secured. On June 12th the *Margaretta*, an armed sloop belonging to the Crown, was taken off the main coast, as well as two other sloops of lesser size. Jeremiah O'Brien was made marine captain by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, and was stationed in Boston harbor to intercept supplies sent to the English troops. Washington supplied armaments and money from the Continental treasury and six small vessels received commissions. Both Connecticut and Rhode Island had a small vessel in the service.

The destitution of the English troops was becoming extreme. They were shut up in Boston by the activity of the Continental troops. Their supplies were being carried into the camp of the enemy, and sickness was rapidly increasing among them. But the forces under Washington were rapidly growing. In six weeks they had increased two thousand three hundred and ninety. Among them were several companies of riflemen from Virginia—men who could hit a target of seven inches at a distance of two hundred and fifty yards, while in rapid motion. But the Americans were unused to camp life, and sickness began to tell among them also. As soon as Washington received a sufficient supply of powder to justify action he advance his works to the

left by fortifying Plowed Hill. This brought the circle of his lines so that the extreme left was north of Boston. His headquarters were on the Charles river, just beyond Cambridge. The right wing, under General Ward, reached Dorchester Neck, directly south of Boston.

In October, Cape Ann, or what we now know as Gloucester, and Falmouth, now Portland, in Maine, were burned by the English. This was done by a fleet of armed vessels. The act seemed like a misfortune, but in reality it raised the Americans to a full understanding of what war meant. Previously they had hardly realized that they had laid themselves open to attack in any direction. They had believed that the conflict would be confined to Boston Bay. It was necessary to take active measures for meeting the enemy upon the sea as well as on the land. During the past few months the coast towns had been at the mercy of the English vessels. Newport had been threatened, and was only spared when it consented to furnish the commander of the English fleet with provisions. Bristol was bombarded, and many houses destroyed. A force landed on the island of Canonicut, in December, burned houses and barns, and carried off all the live stock. Washington was obliged to send down a detachment of men, although he could ill spare them. General Lee took a force of eight hundred to Newport, and not only placed them so that they could protect a considerable stretch of land, but so that they could keep a close watch upon the Tories of the district as well, who were suspected of carrying information to the enemy. It was not easy for the New Englanders to equip a fleet of war. But the work progressed steadily, if slowly. The first notable victory at sea was the taking of the brigantine *Nancy*, loaded with military stores. These were more than acceptable to the army. Washington was with difficulty keeping the soldiers with him. The term of enlistment of the Connecticut men had expired, and they were anxious to return to their homes. It was found that Dr. Benjamin Church, a member of the House in Massachusetts, was secretly writing letters to his brother-in-law in Boston, which revealed the condition and plans of the American army. He was expelled from the House and put in close confinement. Washington reorganized his army and issued a general order for the enlistment of new men. The corps of officers was pruned and improvements were made in all respects. On January 2, 1776, the army was practically a new one. At this time the army carried the national flag which we now have, with the exception of the number of stars, which were then but thirteen, in accordance with the number of the colonies. General Howe, shut up in Boston, met with many discour-

agements. Numerous accidents befell his provision ships. Some of them were taken by the enemy, and others met with severe storms and were obliged to discharge their cargoes. He even found difficulty in providing barracks for his troops during the winter season. He would have been glad to evacuate, but thought he had not transports enough to remove his force, and wrote to England for more help. He pulled down the Old North Church Meeting-house for fuel, and was obliged to mine for coal in Cape Breton. Faneuil Hall, to the great horror of the Bostonians when they heard of it, was used to hold theatrical entertainments in. General Burgoyne, who had at that time more fame as a literary man than as a soldier, wrote a little play which he called the "Siege of Boston." This was being performed, when a sergeant rushed upon the stage and cried that the Yankees were on Boston Hill. The audience laughed heartily, thinking it a part of the performance, but in a few moments the officers were ordered to hasten to their posts, and the audience broke up in confusion. It was true that some of the Connecticut companies had crossed the Neck, and fired the bakery of the English at Charlestown. In the midst of such alarm Burgoyne returned to England. The "elbow-room" which he had thought to make was not yet his. The American Congress, from time to time, had considered the advisability of setting fire to Boston, but this Washington was reluctant to do. He believed that if such a disaster could be avoided, it was best to do it. General Howe himself did not permit the destruction of property more than he could help.

Washington wished to cross to Boston on the ice, but in the council of war which he called he was outvoted. General Howe, on his part, sent a party on the ice to Dorchester Neck, who destroyed every house on the peninsula, and took some Americans prisoners. Washington would never have remained so inactive had he been supplied with powder and heavy artillery. He was almost in despair, when the capture of the *Nancy* renewed his hopes, and gave him ammunition. Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen sent down the guns they had taken from Ticonderoga. Under the direction of Henry Knox, the cannon were put upon fifty-two sleds and drawn by long teams of men over the snow-covered passes of the Green Mountains and the rude roads of New England.

As soon as these reached Washington he called out all the militia of the neighborhood. Ten regiments reinforced him at once. Ward was given the over-sight of the movement upon Dorchester heights and entrusted the immediate command to John Thomas. The ground was

frozen and it was impossible to throw up works, but fascines were collected and made a fair defence. On the night of Saturday, March 7, 1776, the American works opened a cannonading at the north of Boston. This was kept up through the two following nights for the purpose of occupying the attention of the English. Meanwhile John Thomas' train, which consisted of twelve hundred men, took possession of a high hill upon Dorchester heights. Four hundred yoke of oxen drew the material for the works, passing within a mile of the English sentinels, who had no thought for anything but the cannonading at the north. In one night the men threw up a very good defence. The works had been planned by Gridley, who had been so successful with the plans of Bunker Hill. When Howe's astonished eyes saw these in the morning he thought they must have been built by twelve thousand men. The English fleet dared not remain under fire from these guns. Howe himself feared to attack the works. He notified Washington at once that if he would not molest the town or the ships, he would leave Boston peaceably. On the morning of Sunday, the 17th of March, he sailed with his whole army, after destroying all of his property which he could not take away. He found that in an emergency he had shipping enough to carry off his force. With Howe, sailed about eleven hundred loyalists, to whom the cause of the King was still dear. Many of these settled in Nova Scotia.

The few people left in Boston received the army as benefactors when they marched in with music and flying banners. Washington was treated with great courtesy, and the street up which he rode still bears his name. Congress ordered a gold medal to be presented to him—the first coin struck by independent America. Upon its face was a picture of besieged Boston with a group of horsemen in the foreground and the proud motto: "Hostibus primo fugatis."

Washington believed that the next point of attack would be New York, and continued his preparations for an engagement there. For three months the country was left with hardly a foreign soldier on its soil.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION—H. Hagel's "Old Put"
Hawthorne's "Septimius Felton."
Cooper's "Lionel Lincoln."
D. P. Thompson's "Green Mountain Boys."
POETRY—"Song of the Vermonters," Anon.



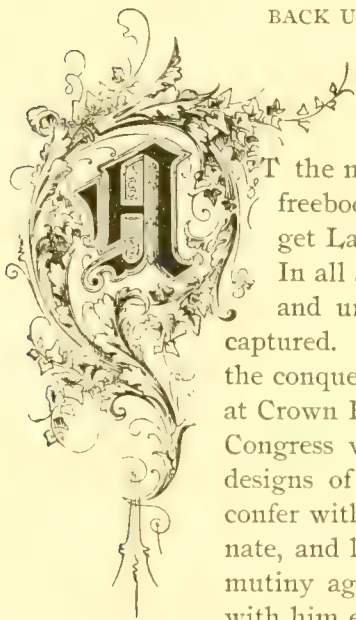
DEATH OF MONTGOMERY.

Engraved by J. B. B. 1862.

CHAPTER LII.

The Plains of Abraham.

THE DESIGNS FOR THE AMERICAN CONQUEST OF CANADA—MONTGOMERY'S MOVE AGAINST MONTREAL—ARNOLD'S FAILURE AT QUEBEC—THE UNION OF THE FORCES—THE SECOND DEFEAT AT MONTREAL—THE AMERICANS FALL BACK UPON TICONDEROGA AND CROWN POINT.



At the north, Arnold and Allen carried on a sort of freebooting together. They were ambitious to get Lake Champlain in the hands of the patriots. In all sea adventures Arnold was given the lead, and under his command an English sloop was captured. Encouraged by this, they laid a plan for the conquest of Canada. Arnold took up his quarters at Crown Point, and Allen remained at Ticonderoga. Congress was timid about seconding the ambitious designs of Arnold, and sent a committee of men to confer with him. They found him sullen and obstinate, and learned that his followers were in a state of mutiny against the government, and willing to side with him even at the cost of patriotism. A thousand men had been assigned by Connecticut to garrison Ticonderoga. When Arnold learned that these were to be commanded by Colonel Hinman, he resigned, as he was not willing to be second in command.

The Governor of Canada was determined to retake Ticonderoga and Crown Point. As for the Canadians themselves, they were in a state of comparative indifference. The richer element was probably truer to the king than were the common people. The Indians of the Mohawk valley had been estranged from the Americans, and were now the allies of the Canadians. There was a call for volunteers on the part of the American Congress, and, meanwhile, Ethan Allen and Major John

Brown were sent into the country between Lake Champlain and Montreal, to discover the true condition of affairs there. Schuyler was Commander-in-chief of all the northern forces, and about the middle of August, 1775, was ready to move his troops. Altogether, these did not number quite two thousand. Schuyler's chief subordinate officer was General Richard Montgomery, a young Irishman of much soldierly experience and strong personal attractions. He was with Wolfe at the capture of Quebec, in 1759, and had further won the confidence of the Americans by marrying one of the ladies of the patriotic Livingstone family. No general among the Americans was more popular with the soldiers. Schuyler fell ill shortly after leaving Ticonderoga, and the command devolved upon Montgomery. In the light skirmish in which the conflict opened, Montgomery was thoroughly disheartened by the cowardice of his soldiers. The troops were raw and undisciplined. They suffered not alone from bodily ailment, but from intense homesickness. Boston men, fighting for the protection of their homes, and in the face of a brave and determined enemy, had plenty to keep up their spirits. But to fight in the midst of a wilderness for the possession of a fortification, with winter approaching, and a poor outlook for provisions, could not but be dispiriting to men who were new to the profession of arms, and cared little for conflict in the abstract—men who had not even learned the value of subordination and discipline.

Allen himself, though a brave man, was a bad soldier in some ways. He had never learned the necessity of waiting for orders, and was quick to do whatever his impulse prompted. When he was on his way to join Montgomery's camp, with a force of eighty Indians, he fell in with Major Brown, who had two hundred men in his party. These two leaders decided to attack Montreal. They had heard that there were no more than thirty men in garrison at that point, and that the townspeople sympathized with the Americans. The plan was for them to attack the city with two columns of men, above and below. The river was crossed in a blustering storm, and Allen's band, at early dawn, stood shivering upon the river bank waiting for Brown's men, who never came. The garrison set upon Allen, killed a number of his men, and carried others as prisoners to England. Among these unfortunates was Allen himself.

The American expedition against the fort of Chambly was successful. The inhabitants round about aided in its capture. The stores of ammunition and provisions were taken to the army encamped under the walls of St. John. An attempt on the part of the English to relieve the

garrison there was repulsed and the fort was finally surrendered, principally because the provisions had given out. By this surrender five hundred regular troops, the greater part of the British army in Canada, fell into the hands of the Americans. Montgomery believed that the time had now come to take Montreal. He posted forces so that all communication would be prevented between that city and Quebec. Upon both sides of the river he planted batteries. On the 13th of November he marched into the town, without bloodshed, the Governor and the garrison having left. In the meantime, Washington had sent up a supporting party, numbering eleven hundred men. These were well equipped, although, from the nature of the journey, they could carry no field-pieces. Washington himself had outlined the expedition. He desired them to ascend the Kennebec river, cross the highlands that divided it from the Chaudiere, and descend that stream to where it enters the St. Charles, nearly opposite Quebec. Washington had a hand-bill printed, which was distributed among the Canadians for the purpose of impressing upon them the friendly spirit of the Americans and begging them to join in the cause of liberty and assist in driving the British from America. With the men who had the country's interests most at heart the conflict in Canada was not a side issue, but an important part of the war. They set a high value upon that extensive and fertile country, with its magnificent rivers and superior natural advantages.

But Washington expected far too much of Arnold and his men. He desired them to meet Schuyler's army, which was then in motion, and to take but twenty days for a march of two hundred miles. It took, instead, sixty days, and the little army of eleven hundred men had been reduced to about one-half when it reached the St. Charles. Their boats had been swamped in the treacherous Chaudiere; they had marched through bogs and were forced to make exhausting portages, carrying their heavy loads with them; they had a fatal lack of acquaintance with the country, and were out of provisions long before they reached their destination, and were obliged to eat shaving soap, candles, salve and dogs, even boiling their moccasins in the hopes of getting some nourishment from them. The horrors of the march are sickening, and not the least shocking scene was when Arnold, who had hurried on to procure provisions, sent back cattle and other supplies to his starving men. They ate like wild beasts, and many of them died from the effects of their indiscretion. It took them ten days to march the last thirty miles after they had entered Canada, for, although the

road was now comparatively easy, the men were too exhausted to go far in a day. During that last delay, one hundred men, mostly carpenters, had come down from Newfoundland and were busy repairing the defenses of Quebec. By the time Arnold was in a position for attack, soldiers were brought down the river and had prepared for the defense of the city. Washington had relied upon the surprise of Quebec, but Arnold had himself given information of his movements by a letter which he entrusted to a faithless guide.

On the 13th of November, the very day that Montgomery entered Montreal, Arnold took his men over the same ground that Wolfe had taken, and in the morning had an army on the plains of Abraham, behind Quebec. But the English did not, as Montcalm had done, respond to the challenge. There was no revolt in the city—a thing which both Arnold and Washington had counted upon. Arnold had not the power to make a breach in the walls near the city. The garrison was shortly reinforced, and Arnold was obliged to break camp and retreat to Point Aux Trembles. Here Montgomery joined him on the 1st of December and took the command. The army now consisted of three thousand men, with six field-pieces and five light mortars. They encamped before Quebec. Deep snow lay over all the country, and as it was impossible to build earthworks, Montgomery had fascines set up. These were filled with snow, over which water was poured, making a barricade of ice. It looked cruel and forbidding, but the first cannonading broke it in pieces. The men were encamped there for three weeks. Montgomery found them hard to manage, and on Christmas day decided that an attack should be made under cover of the first stormy night. The plans were elaborately laid. Arnold was to penetrate the lower town, Montgomery to advance to the rocky heights of Cape Diamond and reach the upper town by an easy communication. Aaron Burr had charge of a forlorn hope which was to scale the Cape Diamond bastion. The night of the 30th, as had been hoped, was dark and stormy. Montgomery's men made their way over blocks of ice and through the drifting snow till they reached the barricades under Cape Diamond. The Americans crowded past this and Montgomery urged on the advance, but as they neared the block-house, which was pierced for muskets, the brave young leader was killed, just as he cried, "Push on, brave boys. Quebec is ours." Two captains and two privates were killed at the same moment, and the Americans retreated in disorder. Arnold's men, under cover of the storm, had reached the palace gate, but here at the first barricade Arnold was wounded.

Morgan, a Virginian, at the head of his riflemen, took the lead, and scaled the barricade with ladders. He was knocked down once; he mounted again at the head of his men. He carried the barricade and drove the enemy into the houses at the sides of the street. If he could have had reinforcements, he would have carried the day; but the odds were too heavy. He tried to cut his way out, but was surrounded on all sides and obliged to surrender. He had four hundred and sixty-six men with him at the time. The Englishmen buried Montgomery within the city. Forty-two years later his body was given to the Americans, who carried it, with great honors, to New York and raised a monument to his memory in front of St. Paul's Church. His wife, then a very old woman, sat alone upon the porch of her house on the Hudson, watching the funeral boat as it sailed by.

The discouraged army was now placed under the command of Arnold, who begged Schuyler for reinforcements. In the course of the winter three thousand were sent to him. The English were afraid to risk an engagement against so heavy a force of men. The Canadians took neither one part or the other, with a few exceptions. A commission, consisting of Benjamin Franklin and four other gentlemen, one of whom was afterwards Archbishop of Baltimore, was sent to visit Canada and see if a political union could not be made, but they had scarcely reached Montreal when news came of a British fleet at Quebec, and Franklin hurried back to Philadelphia to urge the great need of reinforcements. These came in March, under General Wooster, who tried for two months to make an impression upon the fortifications of Quebec. He failed, not from lack of courage, but from want of military experience. Major-General Thomas took his place, and decided that it was wisest to retreat. He was not permitted to do even this unmolested. He lost one hundred men as prisoners, as well as most of his stores and provisions. In a number of small engagements which followed between detachments of both armies, the English troops were successful. Brigadier-General John Sullivan was sent to take the place of John Thomas, who, it was believed, retreated with unnecessary readiness. A last stand was made and an engagement fought, but the English had three times more men than the Americans, and one hundred and fifty of Sullivan's men were taken prisoners. They were obliged to fall back upon Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

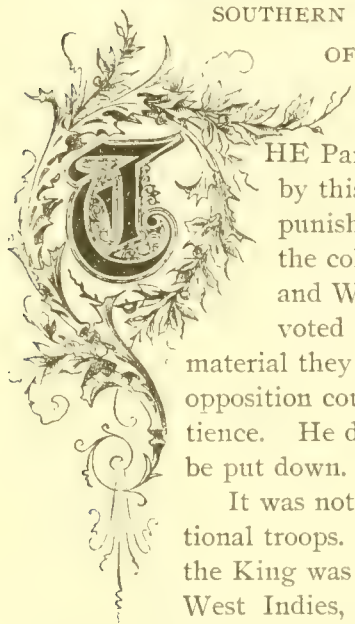
FOR FURTHER READING.

RELIGION. — Grog's. *A Day on the North Ground*. — *In Chains of Prison*.
 DECELY. — *The Death of General Montgomery in Storming Quebec*. — *ATON*.

CHAPTER LIII.

The Palmetto Logs.

THE FEELING IN ENGLAND—THE HIRING OF THE HESSIANS—ATTITUDE OF NEW YORK—THE CONFLICT WITH THE SOUTHERN COLONIES—THE DEFENSE OF FORT MOULTRIE.



THE Parliament in England was thoroughly aroused by this time to the importance of subduing and punishing the rebels in America. The friends of the colonies in Parliament, Edmund Burke, Barre, and Wilbur, protested against the measure which voted the King and ministry all the men and material they should need in carrying on the war, but no opposition could stem the tide of King George's impatience. He decided that the disorders in America must be put down.

It was not so easy as he had supposed to obtain additional troops. Men could not be found in England, and the King was forced to draw upon his garrisons in the West Indies, Ireland and Gibraltar. Even then the number was not sufficient for the successful carrying on of the war, and King George was forced to beg of friendly nations for help. To his surprise, some of these nations which he had felt sure he could count upon, refused him. The reply from Holland was that the States-General considered the Americans worthy of every man's esteem, and looked upon them as a brave people, defending in a becoming, manly and religious manner those rights which, as men, they derived from God, not from the legislature of Great Britain, and that if soldiers were to be brought against them, the States-General of Holland preferred to see Janizaries hired rather than soldiers of a free State. Russia, for different reasons, refused help. Frederick the Great had little sympathy with the English movement, and practically did not believe that a great State should have colonies which were severed from

it by natural obstacles. In short, the sympathy throughout Europe was with the Americans. The foreign troops which George III finally obtained were from the petty German princes. Among these men there was little voluntary service, but almost all, with the exception of the officers, were impressed, and a small price per head was paid by England to the German potentates for their services. There were 29,166 men in the German troops sent to America.

The English and Americans agreed that the campaign for 1776 must center at New York City. As soon as news of Concord and Lexington had reached New York the people had taken immediate steps to defend the city. The feeling there had, from the first, been as strong as elsewhere. The year previous, when the British garrison there had been ordered to join the army in Boston, the citizens consented to let them embark unmolested, but as the troops marched down Broad street, led by five carts loaded with arms, they were stopped by Marinos Willett, a "Son of Liberty." He seized the first horse by the head and brought the whole line to a stand-still. When the commanding officer asked what he meant by the interruption, he replied that it had been agreed that the troops should embark without molestation, but they had not been given permission to take away arms to use against their friends in Massachusetts. The mayor of the city and Governor Morris protested against Willett's high-handed proceeding, but the sympathy of the crowd was with him, and the English were forced to leave without their arms. He then addressed the soldiers, and said if any of them were willing to join the ranks of liberty and desert their ranks they should be protected. One soldier only responded to the invitation, and was marched off with much cheering by the crowd.

The Americans helped themselves to the cannon at the Battery, and placed them along the Hudson to protect the river, now that the conflict of '76 seemed to threaten that point. Lee was ordered by Washington to take command at New York. This was not a little alarming to the Tories of the town, who feared that this decisive action would bring about immediate hostilities, and that the place might be bombarded by the English vessels lying off the coast. There were hot internal dissensions in the city. The conflict between the Whigs and Tories was very bitter. The Tories were powerful and rich, but the Whigs outnumbered them, and had on their side that fierce determination and sense of religious right which gave them their strength from the beginning to the end of the conflict. It must be owned that their treatment of the Tories was not Christian. Some of the Tories were tarred and feathered,

some were waylaid, mobbed and insulted, while others were deprived of office and driven from home. Laws were enacted which inflicted penalties of great severity on them. It is estimated that during the course of the Revolution more than twenty-five thousand loyalists joined the military service and arrayed themselves against the patriots.

The defenses of the city which the Whigs prepared, were, as can easily be imagined, accomplished under constant protest from a large portion of the inhabitants. When Lee assumed command of affairs at New York he turned all of the city into a camp of war, and presented as bold a face toward the threatened harbor as was possible. The works were strengthened, batteries were wisely placed, and the streets well barricaded. On March 6, 1776, Congress divided the southern and middle colonies into two military departments. Lee was sent south and Lord Stirling given the command of affairs at New York. He carried on Lee's work with the utmost vigor. Every male inhabitant of the town was put to work on the fortifications—rather rough work for some of the ostentatious gentlemen of New York. Washington himself arrived in the city on April 13, and took up his headquarters there. Families began leaving the town as rapidly as possible and the soldiers took possession of the dwellings which they abandoned.

The British had other plans besides the capture of New York. They were anxious to move against the southern colonies, where they believed submission could be easily enforced. The Governors of Virginia and North Carolina labored under the delusion that most of the people in those colonies were loyal to the King's cause. Each Governor was provided with a small force to back his authority, and the King sent seven regiments to strengthen them. These he himself selected with great care. They were led by Earl Cornwallis, while the fleet was commanded by Admiral Peter Parker. When they reached America, General Clinton was given the general command. The colonists who stood by Governor Martin, of North Carolina, were Scotch loyalists, chiefly Highlanders, who had emigrated to America after the defeat of the Pretender, and who still held to their oath of allegiance. The son and husband of Flora McDonald were among their leaders, and with them were a large number of Stuarts. But the sturdy Scotch Presbyterians in the back counties took up arms for the patriots, and the Governor soon realized that matters were not to run as smoothly as he had expected. As soon as the Provincial militia heard of the mustering of McDonald's clans, they arrayed themselves to prevent them from

reaching the Governor. They were led by Brigadier-General James Moore, who had with him many gentlemen of wealth and influence. These walked in the ranks with the common soldiery, to keep up the spirits of the men. Moore's force numbered two hundred less than McDonald's. In the first engagement the loyalists were routed. Eight hundred and fifty men were taken prisoners, disarmed and discharged and fifteen hundred excellent rifles were secured, besides a quantity of money, and, what was equally valuable, a chest of medicine. This was practically the end of Toryism in North Carolina. Within two weeks the patriots had ten thousand men in arms, these prompt measures securing peace for North Carolina until 1780. The State was at liberty to give its aid to the other colonies.

The next attempt was upon South Carolina. From the first, this province had felt much sympathy with Massachusetts, and was now prompt to arise for the defense of her own border. The militia was ready to move at the earliest call. Those on the border of North Carolina were held in readiness to join the southern men, should it be necessary. Colonel Christopher Gadsden and William Moultrie were in command of the regular troops. William Thompson led a regiment of riflemen, all of whom were excellent marksmen—the Colonel the best of them all. North Carolina sent down a regiment to join them, without even waiting to be requested. The first thing seen to was the securing of Charleston harbor, for it was known that Clinton could do nothing without the aid of the men-of-war, and that these men-of-war could do nothing unless they held possession of the harbor. There were already some defences there, and these were hurriedly strengthened. Sullivan's Island, a long, marshy strip of ground, well wooded, guarded the entrance to the harbor. Opposite was James Island, which was practically a part of the main coast. Gadsden was put on James Island and Moultrie and Thompson were put upon Sullivan's. Pennsylvania had sent down a force of men under the command of Armstrong, and these were placed near the city of Charleston. Every preparation possible was made in the town. Warehouses were torn down that the cannon might have full sweep. The streets were barricaded. All the horses, wagons and boats were impressed into service, and all the lead in the city was made up into bullets, the very weights of the windows being used. On the 4th of June, General Lee arrived and assumed command. The brunt of affairs rested, however, upon Colonel Moultrie, who was working to complete his fortifications on Sullivan's Island. His men worked upon it night and day. But only the two

sides fronting the channel were completed when the enemy attacked. These walls, however, were sixteen feet thick and guarded with palmetto logs. Into their tough and spongy fibres the balls could sink without doing harm. In the centre of the fort was a marsh, which the men left undisturbed, knowing that shells would be much less apt to explode if they fell into it.

On the 31st of May the enemy appeared. Messengers were sent for the militia in all directions. The women and children were hastened out of the city. The slaves were set to completing the works. Every freeman worked of his own accord. Lee, and other soldiers as well, had little confidence that Moultrie's fort could stand out against the heavy guns of the enemy. But Moultrie himself was confident. The land forces of the enemy landed on Long Island, which lay north of Sullivan's. These were to attack in the flank and rear while the fleet bombarded the fort in front. Thompson's sharpshooters were to oppose the land forces. The English had two 56-gun ships, five frigates of twenty-eight guns each, a mortar ship and two smaller vessels, bearing in all two hundred guns. The bombardment was continuous after it once began, the shot streaming steadily against the side of the fort. But the spongy palmetto logs could not be split and the banks of sand kept them from being dislodged. The shells, as had been expected, fell into the marsh and seldom exploded. Colonel Moultrie was inside nursing a gouty foot and calmly smoking as he gave orders to his intrepid men. More gallant defense could not have been made. When the flag of the fort—a blue banner with a silver crescent, bearing the word liberty—was shot away, Sergeant William Jasper leaped the parapet and, in the midst of the hottest fire, replaced it on the bastion. The men aboard the ships suffered terribly. Three vessels ran aground, and one of them was deserted and burned. Early in the evening the ships withdrew two miles from the island. Clinton had directed his forces at the north side of Sullivan's Island, but was held in check there by Thompson. A victory could not have been more absolute. Moultrie was accounted one of the successful commanders of the army. The fort was named after him, and his regiment was presented with a pair of beautiful banners.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Carrington's "Battles of the Revolution"
 Coffin's "Boys of '76."
 Moultrie's "Memoirs of the American Revolution."
 Ramsay's "American Revolution in South Carolina."
 POETRY—Robert M. Charlton's "Death of Jasper." (See Ford's
 Historical Poems.)

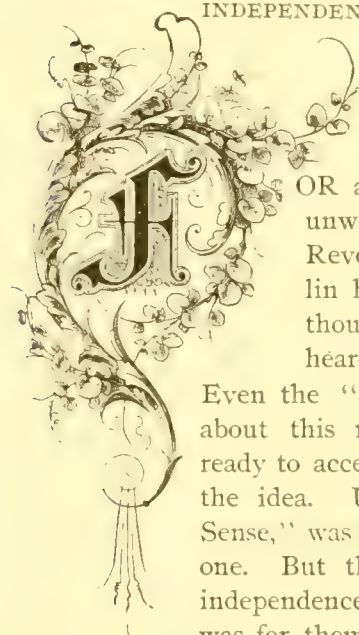


SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

CHAPTER LIV.

The Sons of Liberty.

THE GROWTH OF A DESIRE FOR INDEPENDENCE—THE DECLARATION OF
INDEPENDENCE—THE FORMING OF STATE
CONSTITUTIONS.



FOR a long time the people of America were unwilling to admit, even to themselves, that the Revolution was a war for independence. Franklin himself assured Pitt, in March, 1775, that, though he had traveled in America, he had never heard any expression in favor of independence.

Even the "Sons of Liberty" were unwilling to talk about this matter, feeling that the people were not ready to accept it. The newspapers openly denounced the idea. Until Thomas Paine's book, "Common Sense," was published, the subject was almost a tabooed one. But that pamphlet presented a strong plea for independence. Men, women and children read it. It was for them an education—a liberator from old prej-

udices. It gave them fresh ideas and fresh courage. The different States began to urge Congress to take a more decided position. Samuel Adams, "the Father of American Independence," saw that at last the country was reaching the point which he had so long been hoping for. Resolutions were passed in each Colonial Assembly which heralded the "Declaration of Independence." On the second day of July, 1776, the Thirteen States, assembled in Congress, resolved unanimously "that the thirteen colonies are, and of right ought to be, independent States." Following this came deep deliberations. The matter was one in which there could be no hurry. All knew that if the position was once taken, it would be impossible to draw back from it. There were many delegates to the Congress who did not fully understand the situation, and who asked that all the consequences of such a step might be fully

pointed out to them. This John Adams did, eloquently and clearly. At last all of the members signed the Declaration, except the delegation from New York, which had not been empowered to do so. But it is possible that there were many who signed with reluctance and regret. John Adams was elated. He wrote to his wife that the day had been the most memorable epoch in the history of America, and that it should be celebrated by succeeding generations as a great anniversary festival. "It ought to be solemnized," said he, "with pomp and parade, with games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires and illuminations, from one end of the country to the other, from this time forward forever more;" and so till now it has been, though on the fourth of July instead of the second. Thomas Jefferson prepared the original draft of the Constitution, although he was indebted to the resolutions passed by the several colonies for some of his best ideas and expressions. The clause relating to slavery, which Jefferson had written, was cut out. Had it remained, it might have had its influence in a matter which plunged the nation into a yet more dreadful war than the Revolution, nearly a hundred years later. It was not until the eighth that the Declaration was read, and printed copies distributed. A great concourse of people gathered about the observatory of the State House, in Philadelphia, and here the Declaration was read to them from the balcony by John Nixon, a member of the "Committee of Safety."

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bonds which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government,

laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpation, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such a government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient suffering of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former system of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accomodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise, the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States—for that purpose, obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in time of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation; for quartering large bodies of armed troops among us; for protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States; for imposing taxes on us without our consent; for depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury; for transporting us beyond the seas to be tried for pretended offences; for abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies; for taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of governments; for suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages,

whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of a common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, *free and independent States*; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as *free and independent States*, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire.—Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay.—Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island, etc.—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

Connecticut.—Robert Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

New York.—William Floyd, Philip Livingstone, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

New Jersey.—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania.—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

Delaware.—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M. Kean.

Maryland.—Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Virginia.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

South Carolina.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Hayward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.



OLD LIBERTY BELL

Through the country, wherever the declaration was received, it awoke great excitement. In New York, a mob pulled down the gilded leaden equestrian statue of King George. The head was severed from the body and wheeled in a barrel to the Governor's house. The rest of the statue was moulded by a company of ladies into forty-two

thousand bullets, which were to be shot at the King's soldiers. Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina adopted State constitutions in 1776; New York, South Carolina and Georgia in 1777; Massachusetts in 1780 and New Hampshire in 1781. Connecticut and Rhode Island continued to use their royal charters as the law of the States. Not till 1818 did Connecticut adopt a State constitution, and Rhode Island waited until 1840. Few of the constitutions admitted religious liberty. The constitution of South Carolina said "that no person shall be capable of holding any place of honor, trust or profit under the authority of this State, who is not a member of some church of the established religion thereof." The constitution of Pennsylvania required every member of the legislature to declare not only his belief in the existence of a God who is a rewarder of good and a punisher of evil, but also to believe that the Scriptures are given by Divine inspiration. The constitution of New Hampshire stipulated that the members of its legislature should be of the Protestant religion. The constitution of Massachusetts provided against luxury, plays, extravagant expense in dress, diet, and the like. Every minister or public teacher of religion was obliged, in Massachusetts, to read the Constitution to his congregation once a year.

FOR FURTHER READING:

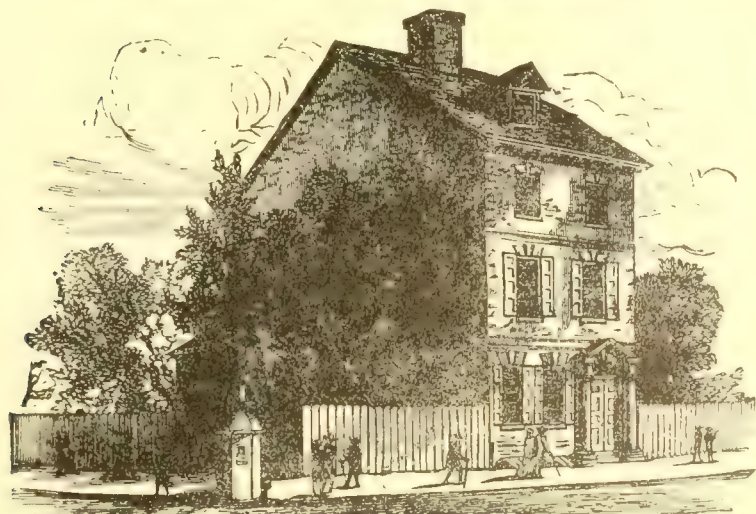
HISTORY—Winsor's "Readers' Hand book of the Revolution."

BIOGRAPHY—Goodrich's "Lives of signers of the Declaration."

FICTION—John Neal's "Seventy-six."

H. C. Watson's "Old Bell of Independence."

POETRY—Charles Sprague's "Fourth of July" (See Ford's Historical Poems.)

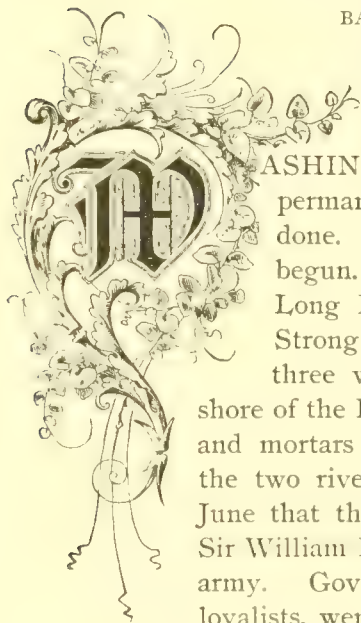


HOUSE IN WHICH THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE WAS SIGNED.

CHAPTER LV.

The Continentals.

WASHINGTON AT NEW YORK—ARRIVAL OF THIRTY-TWO THOUSAND
BRITISH TROOPS—OVERTURES FOR PEACE BY THE
BRITISH—BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND—THE
BATTLE OF HARLEM HEIGHTS—DE-
STRUCTION OF NEW YORK—
BATTLE OF WHITE
PLAINS.



WASHINGTON was anxious to hold New York permanently, and he believed that it could be done. He continued the work which Lee had begun. Governor's Island, Fort Stirling and Long Island were well fortified and manned. Strong works were built upon the Palisades and three water batteries were also built along the shore of the Hudson. By June eighty pieces of cannon and mortars were mounted, bearing upon the bay and the two river channels. It was not until the last of June that the enemy arrived. The first to come was Sir William Howe, commander-in-chief, with his Boston army. Governor Tryon, of New York, and many loyalists, went out to meet him. The troops followed in one hundred and thirty ships, and by June 29th all were in the bay. They debarked upon Staten Island, and here the General took up his headquarters. Admiral Howe, Sir William's brother, followed with some troops, and on August 12th the Hessian arrived. These forces numbered altogether thirty-two thousand men. Washington had upon his rolls about nineteen thousand. Under Howe's command were many distinguished officers, men of high breeding, intelligence and bravery. The English and Hessian soldiers were well trained. De Heister, the general of the Hessians, had been

in many European campaigns. Among the Hessians was a famous company of sharpshooters, under Donop. Even those Hessians who had come against their will and who were not used to bearing arms had still warlike traditions, and they were surrounded by such good material that their inexperience did not greatly lessen the strength of the force. As for Washington's men, they were made up of farmers, merchants, ministers and mechanics. They were brave, but lacking in discipline and an understanding of war. They were without uniforms, a thing which is always depressing to the soldier, and were poorly equipped, the old flint-lock piece being the common arm. Bayonets were few. These men, in motley array, presented but a poor contrast to the elegantly costumed Englishman, and the Hessian, with his brass-pointed cap, his brass-hilted sword and glittering bayonet. General Washington's headquarters overlooked the Hudson, near Varick. Admiral Howe and his brother said that they had come bringing the olive branch of peace, and on July 14th sent a flag of truce up the bay with a letter to the commander-in-chief. The generals sent out to receive this letter found that it was addressed to George Washington, Esq., and returned it with the remark that there was no such man in the American army. On the 20th another flag of truce was sent up with a message to his Excellency, General Washington. This was received and read with attention, but Washington could entertain no proposition for peace which did not acknowledge American independence. An interview was held between Lord Howe and a committee of Congress, which came to nothing, because Howe had not been empowered by the King to admit the independence of the colonies. On August 20th all of the British troops were moved over to Long Island. The sight was an exhilarating one. Nearly ninety boats and flat-boats were filled with the best troops of the army, the glittering arms, the artillery and handsome horses, making a display which that harbor has never seen excelled. Fifteen thousand men took possession of the roads of the island and occupied the Dutch village, while General Cornwallis and Donop's sharpshooters drove back the Pennsylvania riflemen who had been patrolling the coast. General Green was in command of the Americans at Long Island, and had surrounded himself with strong earthworks thrown up in what is now the heart of Brooklyn. On what is now Washington Park stood Fort Putnam, at the crown of the hill. The ridge of hills which lay between the Brooklyn lines and the coast of Gravesend Bay was made the outer line of defense by Washington. Several regiments were brought over from New York to reinforce the Brooklyn wing. General

Green was ill with a fever which was raging among the soldiers, and his command fell upon General Sullivan. Early on the morning of August 27th the American guards were unexpectedly attacked by the



INDEPENDENCE HALL.

English. The day had not yet broken, and in the confusion the American pickets retreated, leaving their major a prisoner with the

enemy. Reinforcements soon arrived and the men held to a steady resistance, although most of them were untried and raw. Against the seventeen hundred inexperienced troops of Lord Stirling were placed at least six thousand English veterans. The Americans took advantage of an orchard near by and the heavy growth of hedges to protect them. Stirling was making a fair defense, when Generals Clinton, Cornwallis, Howe and Earl Percy came up with their men. These marched well around the American lines before they were observed. Two battalions fell into the hands of the English. The rest of the Americans retreated toward the Brooklyn camp, fighting as they went. General Sullivan was captured. The Hessians marched on rapidly after the retreat had begun, attacking the broken detachments. Ten thousand British and four thousand Hessians chased less than three thousand Americans through the woods and over the hills of Long Island, but most of the Americans succeeded in getting behind the works. Stirling still held the field with an organized force. They were surrounded and obliged to surrender to the Hessian commander, De Heister. Two other regiments were captured as well. The English loss was three hundred and seventy-seven officers and soldiers. The American loss in killed and wounded was less than three hundred, but they had given between eight hundred and one thousand prisoners into the hands of the enemy.

On the afternoon of the 29th a council of the general officers met Washington, and it was decided to retreat from Long Island. For twelve hours the troops were ferried across, in the midst of serious interruptions. There was still doubt as to whether it would be wise to continue the defense of New York, and at one time the Americans thought seriously of burning it before they deserted it. For two weeks there was comparative quiet. Had Howe chosen, he might have destroyed New York himself, but he, as well as Washington, concluded that it would be wiser to let it remain unharmed. Washington, after considering how insubordinate his soldiers were becoming, concluded not to continue the defence of New York. The men were sadly discouraged by the disaster at Long Island, and they were neither well paid nor well fed. The disorders were many, and some of the men were so homesick that, though they remained faithful to their posts, they could not be relied upon for vigorous fighting. Fortunately, Washington's call for fresh men was responded to and he was able to allow some of his disabled men to return to their homes. On the 2d of February Washington's army numbered less than twenty thousand.

New York was to be evacuated on the 15th, and the activity of the city for a few days previous could easily be observed by the English. Howe was prompt to move his ships up closer to the city, and about 10 o'clock on the morning of the day appointed for the removal, these ships opened fire. Under cover of this, Donop's Hessian sharpshooters crossed to New York and chased the Americans over the fields to Murray Hill. Washington and his men rode out in a vain attempt to rally the militia. Even those of the men who were willing to fight, could make no stand against the headlong and terrified rout of the majority. Washington was worked up to one of those fierce spasms of anger for which narrow-minded people have so often criticised him. It is said that he drew his sword and threatened to run some fugitives through, and that he laid his cane over many of the officers who showed their men the example of running. He dashed his hat on the ground and cried, "Are these the men with whom I am to defend America." So disgusted was he and so regardless of his life, that had not one of his attendants seized his horse's reins and turned him toward Harlem Heights, the General would probably have fallen into the enemy's hands. It is said that Putnam and Aaron Burr gathered up a portion of the soldiers, and by the most extraordinary exertions marched up the west side of the island through the woods and brought the men to Harlem Heights in safety when night had fallen. Howe was close upon this column in pursuit, and might have overtaken them, but for the exertions of a charming Quaker lady, Mrs. Murray. The General and his staff stopped at her door to ask how long since the Americans had passed. Mrs. Murray replied that they were long since out of reach, and begged that General Howe and his followers would come in and rest from the heat. Mrs. Murray and her daughter treated them with cake and wine, and held the men by their quaint Quaker coquetry for two hours. As a matter of fact the Americans had not been gone ten minutes when Howe inquired for their whereabouts.

A terrible rain fell that night. The patriot soldiers were without shelter. They had lost their provisions, cannons and baggage. The generals were not in a mood for giving them much sympathy for they felt that a more ready courage and obedience would have saved the day. There was a brisk engagement in the morning which was fairly well fought, and put some fresh spirit into the army. Early on the morning of the 16th occurred the battle of Harlem Heights, in which Washington himself directed the movements. He succeeded here in driving the English regulars in an open field—an experience new to

the American soldiers. In this engagement the Americans lost four valuable leaders. But the troops were reanimated, and Washington set great store by the influence of this victory upon their minds.

New York was now entirely in the possession of the English. On the 21st it was nearly destroyed by fire, though not intentionally. Five hundred buildings were burned, and it is supposed that several women and children perished in the flames. The Americans were suspected of setting the fire and about two hundred of them were arrested. Most of them were discharged as soon as examined. One man was hanged. This was Captain Nathan Hale, of Connecticut, a patriot of great courage and influence. He had volunteered to go within the British lines at Long Island and obtain information concerning the forces of the enemy, which was absolutely necessary to Washington. He was captured, and papers found upon him which showed his purpose. He did not at any time deny that he was a spy. He was hung without any trial, and was not even permitted to see a clergyman or use a Bible in his last hours. The letters he had written to his mother and sister were burnt. History has placed him among the honored men of America.

There was quiet for a few weeks, and it was not until the 12th of October that Howe was ready to renew hostile measures. The position of the Americans at Harlem Heights had been strengthened, but the Commander-in-chief feared that they could not be held, with the exception of Fort Mifflin. This was filled with a good garrison. The majority of the troops were scattered along the hills west of the Hudson river, which runs nearly parallel to the Hudson. The army were disposed here in position to face the enemy. Washington held White Plains and the roads leading up the Hudson and to New England. The English moved up in two columns—an impressive sight to Washington and his officers, who looked down upon them from the hills. At the time of Howe's approach the troops were disposed along the brow of a steep declivity. The enemy came clambering straight up the ascent, but recoiled under the hot fire with which they were received. They made a second attempt and were again forced to retreat, but in the third rush they were successful, and drove the Americans before them. All through the retreat the patriots kept up a steady fire from behind trees and fences, and at the close of the day the loss of the English was much greater than that of the Americans. Within the next two or three days Washington withdrew his army to a position on the North Castle heights, which was so strong that Howe

did not attempt to capture it. He now turned his attention to Fort Washington. On the 15th of November Howe demanded a surrender of the fort, threatening that if he was obliged to take it by assault the garrison would be put to the sword. Magaw, who was commanding the Pennsylvanians holding the fort, replied that he preferred to defend it. So insulting a demand for surrender would probably have determined him to this course, even if he had not previously intended it. The fight was a hot one. The American forces were scattered over the hills, along the shore of the river, and about the fort. All of these were finally crowded into the fort. Magaw was obliged to surrender, but it was upon honorable terms. The loss of the English army was three times as great as that of the Americans. Fort Lee was also forced to surrender. The Americans withdrew to the other side of the Hackensack river. Howe commanded the entrance to the Hudson. Washington believed that the British would follow their successes about New York by an immediate attack upon Philadelphia.

FOR FURTHER READING.

FICTION—J. R. Summs' "The American Spy;"
Alden's "Old Store House."

POETRY—F. C. Finch's "Nathan Hale."

DRAMA—D. Frumbell's "Death of Captain Nathan Hale."



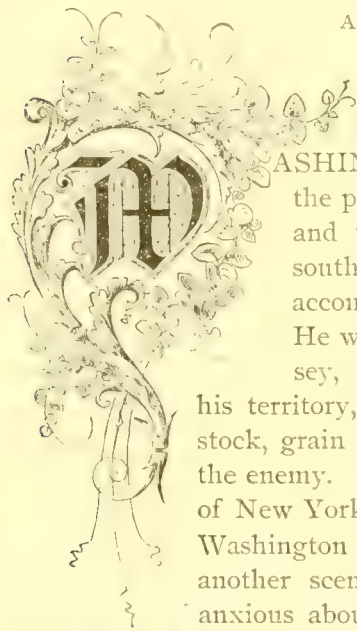
WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

After the painting by CROWE.

CHAPTER LVI.

Battle Field and Bivouac.

THE JERSEY CAMPAIGN—THE BATTLE OF TRENTON—THE BATTLE OF
PRINCETON—WINTER ENCAMPMENT OF WASHINGTON
AT MORRISTOWN.



WASHINGTON left a part of his force to hold the posts which they still retained at the north, and took Putnam, Green, Stirling and Mercer southward with him. The entire force which accompanied him was less than four thousand. He wrote to Governor Livingstone, of New Jersey, telling him to prepare for an invasion of

his territory, and asking the people to remove their stock, grain and other possessions out of the reach of the enemy. The treatment of the people in the villages of New York, by the English, had been merciless, and Washington wished to prevent, as far as he could, another scene of such desolation. Washington was anxious about the condition of his army. The enlistment terms of his men were short, and by the first of December Washington would have but two thousand men with him. The two armies moved through northern New Jersey, Washington always a little in advance of Cornwallis. The two Howes, as peace commissioners, offered pardon to all who had taken up arms against the king, if they would return quietly to their homes. This offer held good for sixty days, and many in New Jersey and Pennsylvania accepted it. As the British moved on through the towns, they took possession of horses, cattle, wagons and whatever else they desired. Washington kept a close outlook, and steadily retreated. His intention was to make a stand for the protection of Philadelphia. Fearing that at any time he might be forced to retreat into Pennsylvania, he had boats in readiness at Trenton, and, to keep the English from pursuing him, he ordered

that all sorts of craft should be removed from the Jersey side, for seventy miles up and down the Delaware river. The American force crossed the Delaware just as the English entered Trenton. The two armies moved southward. Congress thought it unsafe to remain in Philadelphia, and adjourned to meet in Baltimore. Washington was in great need of reinforcements, and kept sending commands to Lee, who was at the north, to join him with his forces. But Lee was envious of Washington's position, and desired to be first in command himself. He paid no attention to the commands, although they were imperative, and it was a fortunate thing for the army when he was finally taken



WASHINGTON ON THE HUDSON.

prisoner by a company of British dragoons. His command fell to General Sullivan, who lost no time in obeying Washington's orders, and reached headquarters just sixteen days after the first command was sent to Lee. Howe swept on through the country, the Americans hurrying before him. The Pennsylvania and New Jersey men had gone to their homes, their term of enlistment having expired. The patriot troops were thoroughly dispirited. Washington felt that warm action was necessary, even though it might be risky. He decided to fix Christmas day as the date of an attempt upon Trenton. The British were confident that rebellion was about put down in America. They

had scattered themselves widely over the country, partly to afford protection to the loyal inhabitants and partly to keep recruits from joining the American army. The men were quartered in companies of twelve and fifteen to a house, all through the farm district, and were given over to plunder of the most vicious sort. Barbarians could not have been more merciless. The wanton destruction of property was the least of their offences. The English had acquired a thorough contempt for Washington's army. They no longer felt fear or any need of watchfulness.

Situated at Trenton was Rahl, with twelve hundred men. Against these men Washington meant to move. Cornwallis was so confident that the campaign was over that he had obtained leave of absence, and had already reached New York, on his way to England. It was upon this lack of suspicion that Washington relied for the success of his plan. He determined to cross the Delaware at night above and below Trenton, to fall upon Rahl and his Hessians, capture them, and recross before he could be overtaken. That Donop and his sharpshooters, who were below Trenton, might have their attention engaged, a body of militia kept up a skirmish which drew off part of his force eighteen miles. General John Cadwallader was directed by Washington to cross the Delaware at Bristol, with a force of Pennsylvanians, and General Ewing was told to cross directly opposite Trenton. The main column, landing nine miles north of Trenton, at McConkey's ferry, was to be led by Washington himself. When the night came it was found unfavorable. Both Cadwallader and Ewing were unsuccessful in their efforts to cross, for the ice was piled up high on the Delaware shore. But Washington made up his mind that he would act, even though he was obliged to do so without support. The troops in his immediate command he felt that he could trust. Twenty-four hundred men composed the expedition. Most of them had seen service, and they were led by valiant men, but the difficulties they had to contend with now were not common ones. There was a driving storm, which half blinded the troops and threatened to make the guns useless. The current of the river was swift and filled with cakes of floating ice. The gentlemen who composed Washington's staff were filled with a courage which was almost gay. All the way across the treacherous river they encouraged the troops in every manner possible. The boats were manned by Massachusetts fishermen, who were natural sailors, and among the best soldiers of the war. Washington had hoped to be on the Jersey shore by midnight, but it was four in the morning before

troops and cannons were safely landed. It was too late to retreat, however, and there was nothing to do but to push on, although there was no longer hope of surprising the town. The road was slippery, and many of the men were nearly barefoot, but among the troops were the most experienced and tried men of the army, and no complaints were made. At Birmingham village the troops were divided, so that they might march around the town in two columns. It was found that the priming of the muskets had become too wet to use in many cases. Washington gave orders for the men to fight with bayonets. The Hessian outposts were surprised. A detachment of Americans, led by Lieutenant James Monroe, dashed in among them and was soon within Trenton. Sullivan had led the men up the lower road and had succeeded in surprising the outposts there as well. The Hessians made an attempt to form in the streets, but Washington himself directed the guns which cleared them away. Rahl had been indulging in Christmas festivities through the night, and neither he nor his men were clear-headed enough to do their best. They ran for their lives and were checked at every quarter. In a short time they were compelled to lay down their arms. Rahl, their lieutenant, was mortally wounded, but lived long enough to give up his sword to Washington. The Americans took nine hundred and fifty prisoners and six guns, and killed seventeen and wounded nearly eighty of the enemy. Their own loss was only two killed and four wounded. By evening Washington had recrossed the Delaware, and by the 30th he had mustered his whole force in the neighborhood of Trenton.

Cornwallis was determined to have revenge for the Trenton affair. He gathered all his available forces at Princeton, and on January 2, 1777, marched with his seven thousand men upon Trenton. They succeeded in cooping the Americans up there in a position which Washington recognized at once as being very perilous. To cross the Delaware in the presence of the enemy and retreat once more into Pennsylvania was impossible. Between Trenton and McConkey's ferry lay a part of the English army. In any position for battle his flanks could easily be turned, for the enemy outnumbered him. In a council of war a fortunate plan was hit upon. It was to follow an almost unused road and to reach Princeton secretly, if possible, in the night, and so escape from the trap in which they were at present caught. General St. Clair attended to all the details of preparation. Along the front of the camp the appearance of an army at rest was kept up. The guards were relieved, the camp fires were kept burning, and every semblance of

peaceful encampment sustained. As a matter of fact, the troops were quietly marching along what was called the Quaker Road towards Princeton. The ground was frozen and the artillery moved without trouble. Washington went with them in the midst of his guard, which was composed of twenty-one gentlemen of fortune, from Philadelphia, who were volunteers to the army and paid their own way. In the morning Cornwallis awoke to the realization that his prey had escaped, and that the Trenton affair was still unavenged. But before the success of the manoeuvre was assured there occurred a brisk engagement between General Mercer's men and a detachment of the English. This was known as the battle of Princeton. In it the English were routed, losing sixty killed and many wounded, besides one hundred and fifty prisoners. The American loss was small. General Mercer had been unhorsed, and on refusing to surrender, was bayoneted on all sides while he fought single-handed with his sword. He died a day or two later. Not a few of the men died from the effects of that night march through the bitter wind. They went without rest or provisions for two days and nights, and all of them were insufficiently clothed. As soon as Cornwallis learned that the enemy was at Princeton, he marched his soldiers in hasty pursuit, and entered that town just an hour after the Americans had left it. Washington took up winter quarters at Morristown. There was a feeling of general satisfaction throughout the United Colonies, for though the army had met with many disasters, it had succeeded in holding the English well in check. It was now seated in the very heart of New Jersey, which at one time everyone felt sure that the enemy would overrun. True, Howe held New York, but he had been obliged to abandon his plans against Philadelphia. Cornwallis and Howe had been outgeneraled and their veteran troops had suffered severely at the hands of the raw militia. George Washington was recognized as a great soldier, patient, discreet, ingenious and brave. Europe, and even England, were obliged to admit the dignity of the American Revolution, and to recognize the fact that the world had a new nation.

FOR FURTHER READING

BIOGRAPHY—G. W. GREENE'S "Life of General Greene."

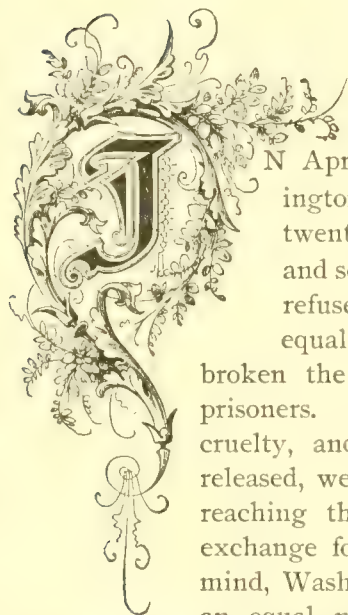
FICTION—C. J. PETERSON'S "Kate Ashford Paulding's "Old Continental."

POETRY—"Battle of Trenton." (See Ford's Historical Poem.)
C. F. ORNE'S "Washington at Princeton."

CHAPTER LVII.

The Year of the Three Gallows.

STATE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY—THE PENNSYLVANIA CAMPAIGN—
THE BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE—"THE PAOLI MASSACRE"—THE BRITISH AT PHILADELPHIA—THE
BATTLE AT GERMANTOWN—WASHINGTON WINTERS AT
VALLEY FORGE.



ON April, 1777, General Howe demanded of Washington a return for a number of officers and twenty-two hundred privates whom he had released and sent within the American lines. Washington refused to make an exchange which would be equal in numbers, for he said that the enemy had broken the spirit of the contract made concerning prisoners. He accused Howe of great injustice and cruelty, and said that many of the prisoners, when released, were in so weak a state that they died before reaching their homes, or immediately afterward. In exchange for these suffering men, broken in body and mind, Washington did not propose to make a return of an equal number of able-bodied Englishmen. As a matter of fact, the American prisoners met with terrible treatment. As soon as they were taken they were robbed of their baggage, their money and their clothes. Many of them were kept upon the prison ships, which were terribly overcrowded, with only one-third the allowance of food which they should have had. It is said that at least eleven thousand five hundred men died upon the prison ships. Washington continued to refuse an equal exchange of men for the melancholy creatures who were sent him, almost none of whom were able to be placed in the field again. This was a great disappointment to Washington, for he was in serious need of men. The term of many of his

regiments had expired, and in the spring of 1777 he did not have four thousand names on his muster-roll. The difficulty of procuring munitions of war was as serious as that of procuring men. Arms were scarce and gunpowder almost unattainable. But for France, it is doubtful if the war could have been carried on. In spite of her treaty with Great Britain, France was friendly to the American cause. Though the French minister deeply deplored to the English government the aid which the people of France were giving to the American patriots, he took care to remain ignorant of what was actually being done. Large supplies of powder, cannon and field equipage were shipped from France and allowed to leave without hindrance from the government. Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane and Arthur Lee were sent by Congress to France, and these asked the King to recognize the independence of the United States. He would not do this, although he expressed his good will and ordered two million livres to be paid them by quarterly payments. Spain secretly joined France in helping the colonies, and contributed one million livres, but she was not willing to be known in the matter.

It is not necessary to relate in detail all the numerous and unimportant skirmishes which took place at different points between the Americans and the English. During the spring of 1777 the English burnt a number of villages, and Governor Tyron, who was now Major-General of the Provincials, did some disastrous work through Connecticut. Each of those engagements between the opposing forces has left many interesting traditions, but to cite them all, or even the best of them, would be a task too great to undertake. In May, Long Island was the scene of some determined fighting, the hostilities reaching as far as Sag Harbor. General Prescott, of the English army, was captured, and Washington hoped that he might be exchanged for Lee, whom it will be remembered was in the hands of the English. Lee was still believed in by many people, although he had offered to sell himself and his plans to the English and had for months been disloyal to his country. By the 28th of May, Washington broke camp, moving to the southeast that he might be in a better position to watch Howe's movements. The patriot army had now increased to seven thousand. Sullivan was in command of the continentals at Princeton, and the first move of the English army was to send Cornwallis to attack this town. Sullivan fell back and was not overtaken. Cornwallis tried to bring Washington into action, but failed. A little later he succeeded in taking three cannons and two hundred prisoners from General Stirling, but on the

30th the English withdrew and crossed in a body to Staten Island. For six weeks they made no move, and Washington was unable to guess what their intentions might be. On the 23d of July, Howe set sail from New York, with eighteen thousand men, leaving six thousand in the city, under Clinton. A week later the English fleet appeared in the Delaware, but Washington had put such good obstructions there that it again put out to sea. Washington was as anxious as he was curious. He feared that it might be Howe's intention to move upon Charleston, and knew that defences could not reach the city in time to be of help. When next the fleet was heard of it was off the Chesapeake,



MARQUIS MARIE JOSEPH PAUL DE LAFAYETTE.

and Washington was reassured by the reflection that Howe's intention must still be to move upon Philadelphia. At this time Washington's army was joined by several foreign officers, who distinguished themselves in their devotion to the American cause. Among them were Lafayette and Baron John De Kalb. De Kalb and Lafayette were commissioned by Congress. Lafayette was very young—indeed he had not yet reached his majority—and it was only when he assured Congress that he had come as a volunteer and would pay his own expenses, that he was commissioned. The very ship in which he had

brought his men had been purchased and fitted out at his own expense. Washington marched his army through Philadelphia on the 22d of August. Howe was pushing his army through Pennsylvania. On the 10th of September Washington determined to hinder his further progress. At this time Howe was on the bank of the Brandywine river, commanding the principal forts. The engagement was a general one all along the lines. The Americans were finally forced to retreat. Their loss was three hundred killed and five hundred wounded. The English loss was less than six hundred in killed and wounded. Lafayette distinguished himself, and received a wound in the leg which kept him confined to his quarters for two months. The American army retreated the following day towards Pennsylvania and Germantown. On the 15th of September it crossed the Schuylkill. Here Howe advanced upon them. Anthony Wayne was in the American advance and was quite willing for a battle, but a drenching rain storm put an end to it. On the 19th of September Wayne was at Paoli, and within sight of Howe's encampment. He saw that the army was quietly engaged in camp occupations and told Washington that if he would come to his aid with the whole army he believed that a deadly blow might be dealt them. The intention was to move upon them in the night. Wayne had fixed midnight for the time of his movement. The watchword in his camp was "Here we are and there they go," but it proved to be a watchword without a signification, for, two hours before midnight Howe did exactly the thing which Wayne was intending to do. The British fell upon the American camp, firing no shots, but using their bayonets. The Americans were in the light of their camp-fires, and the British in the protection of the shadow. Wayne's men ran in confusion through the dark woods. Nearly one hundred and seventy were killed. This is known as the Paoli massacre. At 1 o'clock that night an aid-de-camp dashed into Philadelphia with a message from Washington that the enemy had crossed the Schuylkill and would be in the town in a few hours. The news spread through the town wildly and the people were roused out of their beds to hurry from the place. A patrol was put in the streets to guard against fire. It was over a week before Howe marched into the city. His troops were received with loud cheers by the Tories.

Washington learned a few days later that Howe had sent a small detachment to reduce the American forts on the Delaware. Washington decided that this was a good opportunity to strike an effectual blow. Howe's army was encamped in a long, straight line, to which there

were four approaches. Washington's plan was to advance on all four roads and engage the enemy along the whole line at the same moment. The attack was to be made at precisely 5 o'clock on the morning of the 4th of October. On the evening of the 3d the American army left its encampment and marched all night. They reached the points aimed at about daybreak on the 4th. The morning was misty and they were upon the outposts of the enemy before their approach was known. The Americans were in good fighting mood. Their cry was to revenge the Paoli massacre. A part of the English lines broke, and the day might have been won, but that in the fog and smoke the Americans mistook their own lines for those of the enemy, and did serious injury among themselves, delaying the general movement. The battle was lost and Washington ordered a retreat. A thousand men had been left behind, while the English lost not more than five hundred. But Howe was alarmed, nevertheless, and withdrew his army into the city. He was in doubt where to take up his winter quarters. The Delaware river was commanded by the Americans and it was not easy, therefore, to obtain provisions. The Schuylkill was seriously impeded by obstructions and by floating batteries along the shore. Howe sent Colonel Donop, with his Hessian sharpshooters, to reduce Fort Mercer. Donop made a furious assault, but both he and his lieutenant-colonel were killed, as well as four hundred Hessians. The two British ships, which had moved up the river to aid in the assault, ran aground. One was blown up by the fire from the fort and the other burnt to escape capture. But Howe still felt that he could not afford to let the enemy retain possession of the Delaware river. On the 19th of November the British fleet was brought to bear upon Fort Mifflin. The garrison there made a sturdy fight, but could not hold out against the heavy guns of the vessels, and they were obliged to take refuge on the other side of the river, in Fort Mercer, having had two hundred and fifty out of four hundred either killed or wounded. Cornwallis now moved into New Jersey, at the head of so large a force that even Fort Mercer had to be deserted. The Delaware, below Philadelphia, was now under the control of the British fleet. Washington took up his winter quarters at Valley Forge, and it is said that the march of his army over the frozen ground could be tracked by the blood from their uncovered feet.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Cooper's "History of the American Navy."

FICTION—Cooper's "Pilot"

J. R. Jones' "Quaker Soldier."

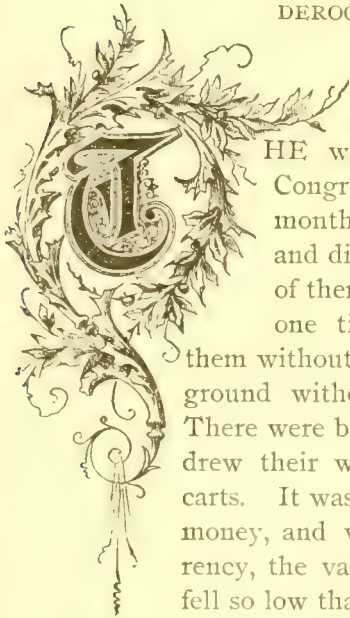
E. H. Williamson's "The Quaker Partisans."

POETRY—Carleton's "Little Black-eyed Rebel."

CHAPTER LVIII.

Tattered Conquerors.

WASHINGTON'S CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE—NEGLECT OF CONGRESS—
THE CONWAY CABAL—GENERAL STEUBEN—BURGOYNE
IN THE NORTH—THE SIEGE OF TICON-
DEROGA—THE BATTLE OF
ORISKANY



THE winter at Valley Forge was a dreary one. Congress neglected the soldiers woefully. For months they were left to suffer with hunger, cold, and disease. They slept without blankets, many of them sitting all night by their camp-fires. At one time there were more than a thousand of them without shoes. Even the sick had to lie on the ground without even a bunch of straw under them. There were but few horses, and the soldiers themselves drew their wood and provisions to their huts in little carts. It was very seldom that the troops received any money, and when they did, it was in Continental currency, the value of which was steadily decreasing. It fell so low that at one time it took one hundred Continental dollars to buy a pair of shoes. The foreign officers

who had joined the camp were still faithful. Besides Lafayette and DeKalb, were Kosciuszko, Pulaski and Von Steuben. These lived in little log huts "no gayer," writes Lafayette, "than a dungeon." These men were used to courts, luxury and adulation, and their devotion to the American cause was put to a severe test, although, of course, they did not suffer the stinging privations of the common soldiery. The camp at Valley Forge was laid out in parallel streets of log huts, built by the soldiers. Fortunately there was plenty of building material close at hand. This was their salvation. Had they not been well-sheltered, it is doubtful if they would have had courage to face the rigors of that winter. Even as it was, the death-rate increased thirty-three per cent.

from week to week. Desertion was frequent, but not so frequent as one might expect.

Congress was at York, Pennsylvania. It seemed to the men who had the interests of the national army at heart, that Congress was strangely neglectful and indifferent. Upon Washington's shoulders fell the responsibility and burden of providing supplies and putting down mutiny. His distresses were added to by the fact that he had many enemies who were planning for his overthrow. Chief among these was General Gates, who had conducted the latter part of a successful campaign at the north—a campaign in which he won more



BARON VON STEUBEN.

credit and did less work than several other generals whose names history has not so faithfully preserved. He was exceedingly jealous of Washington, and conspired with a man by the name of Conway for the overthrow of the Commander-in-chief. This was called the "Conway Cabal." A conspiracy of this kind could not be conducted without correspondence, and this made discovery almost inevitable. Throughout the country the cabal aroused universal indignation. In the midst of these troubles Washington had the satisfaction of knowing that the best men of the country were his warm friends, and he also perceived

that in spite of their privations the army was growing in effectiveness. This was due largely to William Von Steuben, the Prussian general, who has been mentioned before. He had been with Frederick the Great, and understood the management of men thoroughly. He introduced the Prussian system of minor tactics, and beginning on a small scale, he gradually brought the whole army into an admirable state of drill. The fact that he had no personal ambition in the matter and was moved solely by a sympathy for the soldiers and the cause they represented, endeared him to the hearts of the men. He had a quick temper and a brusque manner. He swore at the soldiers in German, and compelled his aids to swear at them in English. But the men had the sense to perceive that what they were learning would make them formidable. They saw now, if they had never before, the necessity of absolute obedience on the part of the soldier, and that he is valuable only when he becomes an unthinking part of a great human machine. In the battles which were to come Steuben was remembered with affection and tenderness when the men saw the strength they had gained under his instruction. Stories of his bluntness, his roughness and his profanity were told for long years after with a humor which but illy disguised the emotion which the mention of his name awakened. So the long months of the winter passed with Washington's men, and meanwhile, in the North, there were active hostilities.

Burgoyne, on his return to England after the end of the American campaign in Canada, submitted to the ministry his "Thoughts for conducting the war from the side of Canada." His plans were approved, and in March of 1777 he was given command of a force. Lieutenant-Colonel St. Leger was to assist him by making a diversion on the Mohawk river. The Governor of Canada was ordered to give all the assistance possible by adding Canadians and Indians to the expeditions. But the Canadians were more than indifferent; they were disinclined to the service. It was a matter which did not concern them, and in which they would have preferred to take no part. With the Indians, as can easily be imagined, it was quite different. But Burgoyne was seriously criticised, even in England, for the use of these savages in honorable warfare. The plan of the campaign was for Burgoyne to get possession of Albany, control the Hudson river, co-operate with Howe, and allow that general to act with his whole force southward; in short, to divide New England from the other States, and thus make their reduction easier. But through a very slight accident, which, however, was not slight in its consequence, General Howe was not informed of these

plans at all. Burgoyne landed with his eight thousand men off St. John's river, with the finest artillery train in America. Under him was a corps of successful officers. An English fleet was put upon Lake Champlain, consisting of nine vessels, carrying one hundred and forty-three guns and manned by one hundred and forty seamen.

On the 17th of June Burgoyne prepared for an attack against Ticonderoga. The river of St. John being the outlet of Lake Champlain, he had easily moved down to the western shore of the lake, and arrayed himself before the fort. Ticonderoga was still thought to be the key to the northern colonies, and the English believed its reduction to be necessary. The Americans were confident of holding the fort. General Arthur St. Clair, of Pennsylvania, was in command of the post with a force of three thousand men. Major-General Schuyler, who at this time had charge of the northern department, hastened to strengthen the chain of posts from Ticonderoga to the Hudson and Albany. St. Clair's force was too small to cover every explored point, and to save some of his out-post detachments, he withdrew them. One of the posts which he was forced to abandon was Mount Hope. This the English General, Frazer, took possession of with heavy guns, and cut off the communication of the Americans with Lake George. But this was a little matter compared with an unexpected move on the part of the British, which amazed and dismayed the Americans. South of Ticonderoga was a steep wooded height, which rose more than six hundred feet above the level of the lake. This was Sugar Loaf Mountain. It overlooked every fortified elevation in the vicinity, but had always been neglected in former wars because it was thought to be inaccessible. Burgoyne had with him engineers of ambition and skill, who secretly made a path up which the artillery could be drawn to the top, and one morning the American garrison, awoke to find the best guns of the English army frowning down upon them. St. Clair had but one chance of saving his garrison and that was by leaving the fort secretly at night. On the 6th of July, at 3 o'clock in the morning, the troops marched out of the Ticonderoga forts and moved towards Castleton, thirty miles southeast. The guns had been spiked, the tents struck, the women and the sick sent hours before up the lake with the stores, and all would have gone well if some one had not been foolish enough to set fire to one of the houses. By the light of the blaze the English saw the Americans retreating, and started immediately in pursuit. All the next day St. Clair retreated through the woods and on the morning of the 7th was attacked. He met with a heavy loss and

was obliged to retreat. Forty of his men were killed and three hundred and fifty wounded or taken prisoners. General St. Clair made a circuitous march of more than one hundred miles and reached Fort Edward with the remainder of his army.

Throughout the colonies there was a feeling of deep chagrin which, to tell the truth, was out of proportion with the disaster. In England there was rejoicing as ill-proportioned. There was no question, of course, but that the condition of the northern army was serious. All the troops that General Schuyler could muster at Fort Edward by the middle of July were barely five thousand. He called for assistance, and Washington sent him two brigades of Morgan's splendid riflemen, besides tents, ammunition and guns, which he could but illy spare from his own army. General Benedict Arnold and General Lincoln, of Massachusetts, were ordered to report to Schuyler. Burgoyne, for some reason, was slow in moving, and these reinforcements had time to reach Fort Edward without interruption. In all, the American army at the north numbered six thousand, two-thirds of whom were Continentals, fairly armed. When Burgoyne's soldiers began their march, they found that the roads had been torn up, trees felled across them, all the bridges destroyed, and the cattle driven off. Their provisions were tardy, and the month of July had almost passed before they reached the river at Fort Edward. On the 22d Schuyler abandoned this fort and took a better position on Moses' creek, three miles below. Being threatened here, he fell back from one point to another until he reached Von Schaick's Island, where the Mohawk runs into the Hudson. Burgoyne's plan of the campaign, as has been said before, was to send two forces southward. One of these was to march through the Mohawk valley to Albany and join the main body. This was composed of eighteen hundred men, under St. Leger. These reached the vicinity of an old fortification on the Mohawk river, known as Fort Schuyler. St. Leger demanded surrender but was promptly refused. The people of the valley were patriotic, and at the first alarm the militia had turned out eight hundred in number and hurried to the relief of the garrison, which was composed of seven hundred and fifty New York and Massachusetts Continental troops, under Colonel Gansevoort. At the head of the militia was General Nicholas Herkimer, a sturdy German, who had been so warm in his defence of the popular cause that his leadership alone gave courage to the people of the valley. He sent word to Gansevoort of his approach, and suggested that the garrison should meet him at an appointed place. But St. Leger heard of

Herkimer's approach and intercepted him. Herkimer was marching carelessly through the Mohawk valley where the river bends frequently and the ground is broken with ravines, when he found himself surrounded by Indians and Englishmen in ambush. The Americans had entered well into the defile near Oriskany, where they were quite at the mercy of the enemy. Herkimer was mortally wounded at the beginning of the engagement, but he seated himself upon his saddle at the foot of a tree, lit his pipe, and determining to die as slowly as possible, gave his orders. No fight of the revolution was more desperate. For a large part of the time it consisted of hand-to-hand struggles, in which the men fought with knives, tomahawks, swords and spears. The fight lasted for five hours, till the ground was covered with the dead and wounded, nearly two hundred being killed on each side. At length help came to the Americans. Gansevoort had been reached by a messenger and sent out a sortie, composed of two hundred and fifty New York and Massachusetts men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Willett, of New York. This party rushed into the enemy's camp, where only a few troops had been left in charge, capturing baggage, stores, papers and flags and drawing the attention of the enemy away from Herkimer's hard-pressed forces. The Indians were frightened and soon retreated. This weakened the British so that they had no choice but to follow. St. Leger did not, however, give up the siege of the fort until news reached him of Arnold's approach, when the Indian allies compelled him to abandon the siege.

This was the first check to Burgoyne's plans. The hatred of him among the Americans had increased a thousand fold. His cruelty in employing the Indians was everywhere condemned. The fate of Jane McCrae was quoted as an example of the horrors which Indian alliance involved. She was a young woman, beautiful and gently reared, affianced at the time of her death to a young loyalist officer. She was killed while in the hands of two Indians, and her long hair was afterwards shown at Burgoyne's headquarters. People chose to believe that she was killed by the Indians, but in fact she was killed by her friends, the American soldiers, who were firing upon a party of Indians who had captured Miss McCrae and a friend with whom she was staying, Mrs. McNeal. Miss McCrae was buried by the soldiers who had attempted her rescue and heedlessly caused her death.

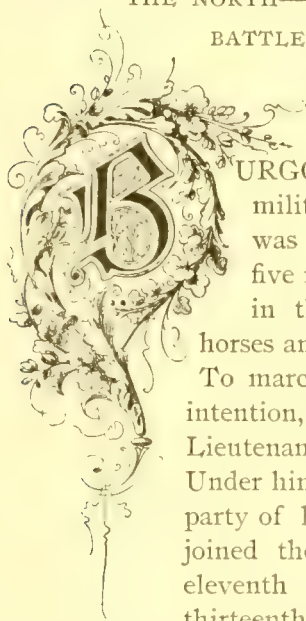
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Burgoyne's "Expedition from Canada."
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Life of Allen."
FICTION—E. E. Ellis' "Haunted Wood,"
C. F. Hoffman's "Greyslaer."

CHAPTER LIX.

“Elbow Room.”

THE RAID ON BENNINGTON—GENERAL GATES GIVEN COMMAND AT
THE NORTH—THE BATTLE OF FREEMAN’S FARM—
BATTLE OF BEMUS HEIGHTS—SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE.



BURGOYNE, moving his main column with slow, military precision, was in great need of stores, and was delighted when he learned that about twenty-five miles east of his line of march, at Bennington, in the New Hampshire grants, was a depot of horses and stores, which the Americans had established.

To march against this store-house was, therefore, his intention, and he appointed for the leader of the raid Lieutenant-Colonel Baume, a trusted German officer. Under him was a select corps, five hundred strong, and a party of loyalist rangers. About one hundred Indians joined the column also. Baume started out on the eleventh of August, and on the afternoon of the thirteenth, then sixteen miles distant from his starting

point, wrote to Burgoyne that the rebels were now aware of the expedition, but that the Tories all about the country were flocking in to him. He complained that the Indians were uncontrollable, and added that he had learned that the strength of the American militia at Bennington was about eight hundred. Burgoyne concluded, on receiving this information, that it would be best to reinforce Baume, and on the fifteenth sent forward Colonel Breyman and his five hundred Brunswick chasseurs. It was true that Burgoyne's approach had been learned of by the "rebels." They had risen with their usual promptitude, and at their head was General Stark, who, at the time of the Boston fight, had gathered the farmers of the country around him and hastened to the rescue. At Bunker Hill, and at Trenton, he had done brave work, and now the whole region was ready to answer to his call. The State

ordered out the militia, and gave Stark the command. His brigade consisted of fifteen hundred militia. To these were added companies of "Green Mountain Boys," which swelled the entire force to about twenty-two hundred. These hastened to Bennington, many of them marching by night in a severe rain. By the sixteenth, Stark was ready to attack Baume's main body. There is a story that as the general came in sight of the enemy he cried: "See there, my men; there are the red coats; before night they are ours, or Mollie Stark is a widow." The fight lasted for two hours, and the British were finally forced to give way. No road of escape was left open to them, and the entire body surrendered. Baume was mortally wounded. The American militia-men, in great exultation, scattered over the abandoned camp for the purpose of plundering it. By this greed and disorder they came near losing all the advantage they had gained, for they were surprised by Colonel Breyman with his reinforcements, and it was only by the promptest action of the American officers that the English were driven back. When night fell, it was certain that the Americans had gained a signal victory. They had taken four cannon and nearly seven hundred prisoners, with but a small loss to themselves. This was known as the Battle of Bennington. This success at the north reanimated the spirits of the colonies. Volunteers hastened northward to swell the victorious army there. General Gates was given command of the northern department, in the place of Schuyler, and the former general reaped the credit of all the work Schuyler had done. Gates moved the camp from the mouth of the Mohawk, and took possession of Bemus Heights, twenty-five miles north of Albany. This site was commanding, and capable of easy defense, and, under the direction of Kosciusko, was strengthened by a line of breastworks and redoubts. This post held the road to Albany, and to reach that town Burgoyne must first overcome this obstacle. The British were still annoyed by lack of supplies, but it was necessary that they should push on, and they hastened to attack the Americans on Bemus Heights as soon as possible.

Gates had about nine thousand men. His position was excellent. Upon the right was the Hudson; on the left, ridges and thick woods; in front, a ravine and abattis. Commanding with Gates was a large number of efficient officers, among them Arnold, and Colonel Daniel Morgan of Virginia, with his famous rifle corps. On the eighteenth there was a skirmish, in which a number of Englishmen, who were gathering potatoes, were killed or captured. On the nineteenth, work began in good earnest. Burgoyne moved upon Gates in three large columns.

Gates hastened to send out Arnold and Morgan to meet him. The battle ground was interspersed with thick woods, occasional clearings, and ravines. With such protection the lines were able to approach within close range. The fight was a long and serious one; now one side and now the other fell back. A number of the American commanders lost half of the men in their force. The English had four pieces of artillery on the ground, but the Americans had none. A party of New Hampshire men charged upon and seized a twelve-pounder. They were driven from it by a larger body of the enemy, but secured it a second time, and were again forced back. Private Thomas Haynes, of Concord, sat astride the muzzle of a piece when the enemy came up, and killed two men with his bayonet before a bullet struck him. The fierceness of the struggle can be imagined when it is known that thirty-six out of the forty-eight British gunners were either killed or wounded. The firing ceased at sunset. The Americans withdrew their fortified lines and the enemy held the field. Neither side were victorious, but Burgoyne had received his second check. The engagement was known as the battle of Freeman's Farm.

The British fortified the ground which they held, and rested there for eighteen days. In the meantime, reinforcements came to Gates. General Stark threatened Burgoyne's communication with the north, and Colonel John Brown, with five hundred men, had made a dash at Ticonderoga and taken prisoners and guns. Burgoyne's constant hope was to join the main body under Howe, and thus force Gates to fall back. By the 21st of September he received word that Sir Henry Clinton had been sent from Howe's army with an expedition which would sail up the Hudson for the purpose of taking the forts near West Point, thus creating a diversion in Burgoyne's favor. Clinton succeeded in doing as he desired, and carried both Forts Montgomery and Clinton by assault. The American loss was about three hundred, of whom sixty or seventy were killed or wounded. The British dismantled the forts, burned two American frigates and laid a village in ashes. General Putnam, who was in command of the Americans at that point, retreated farther up the river and attacked the post at Fishkill. Clinton then returned to New York.

This had not been of such marked relief to Burgoyne as he had hoped. The American lines were closing about him. He was short of provisions, and he found his Indian allies restless. It was necessary for him to either advance or retreat, and it was more in keeping with his character to do the first. With his best generals, he took position on

open ground within a mile of the American lines, sending an advance around to reach the American rear. Gates was quick and cordial in his response, sending out Morgan, with his riflemen, to begin the work. Hardly an hour passed after the British gave battle before their whole line was retiring in disorder. The success of the day had largely been due to the efforts of Arnold. There were many jealousies and enmities in the northern division, and Arnold's impassioned and overbearing disposition had brought him into disgrace. Gates had taken his command from him and told him to remain in his tent, but when he heard the firing upon the field and saw how the American lines wavered for a time, he rushed out and took command of first one corps and then another, rousing the troops to enthusiasm. Gates sent a messenger ordering him to leave the field, but Arnold succeeded in avoiding him, and continued to cheer on the men who followed wherever he led. Even when the English were driven to their intrenchments, and the twilight had deepened almost to darkness, Arnold and Morgan broke through the lines and works and forced the Hessians to abandon their position. In this last charge Arnold was wounded. Congress promoted him to the rank of Major-General. The American loss had been small, but the English had lost many men as well as one of their best generals, and altogether the defeat of the English was decisive. Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga and encamped at the north side of the Fishkill. Gates followed him and made such a disposition of his troops as to surround him. His line of retreat was severed; he was threatened in the rear, and had but five days rations in the camp. Under the circumstances there was little choice but for him to make proposals for surrender. These he sent to the American commander, who agreed that the British army should march out with all the honors of war and have free passage to England, upon condition of not serving again during the war. The surrender included five thousand seven hundred and sixty-three officers and men. On the 17th of October the army laid down their arms in the presence of two majors of General Gates' staff. For several days after, Burgoyne and his officers were entertained courteously by Gates and his staff. In England, Burgoyne was severely blamed for a blunder in which the ministry should have taken the blame to themselves. Congress presented Gates a medal for accomplishing what, up to this time, was the most important event of the war.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Burgoyne's "Orderly Book,"
Felton's "Journal of American Revolution."

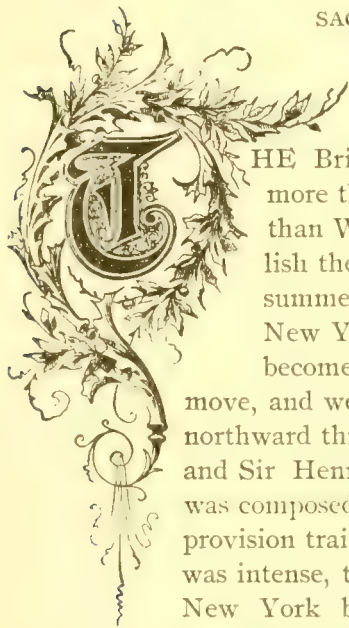
BIOGRAPHY—Spark's "Life of Stark"

FICTION—Cooper's "Chain-Beater."

CHAPTER LX.

Sabre and Musket.

EVACUATION OF PHILADELPHIA BY THE BRITISH—THE BATTLE OF
MONMOUTH COURT HOUSE—FIRING OF BEDFORD AND
FAIR HAVEN—THE WYOMING MAS-
SACRE—WARFARE IN
THE WEST.



THE British forces had occupied Philadelphia for more than eight months with a force much larger than Washington's, but they had failed to establish themselves in the State at large. Early in the summer of 1778 they received orders to return to New York, for the concentration of their forces had become necessary. On June 18th they began to move, and were soon ferried across the river and marching northward through the Jerseys. Howe had been relieved and Sir Henry Clinton had the command. The train was composed of fourteen thousand effective men and the provision train was eight or ten miles long. The heat was intense, the roads bad, and during the long march to New York between six and eight hundred Hessians deserted. As soon as Washington heard of Clinton's

start he broke camp at Valley Forge and sent his men forward to destroy bridges and delay the enemy. On the 21st the Americans crossed the Delaware and on the 28th struck the rear of Clinton's columns, bringing about the battle of Monmouth Court House. General Steuben himself had reconnoitred the enemy the day before. Lafayette, Green and Lee were given commands. The night before the 28th several hundred men were moved up closer to the enemy, where they could be in position to watch their movements in the morning. As soon as Clinton's troops were set in motion Washington sent word to Lee to hasten operations and force an engagement. The main army moved forward to support the advance corps. Lee was thrown into confusion by con-

flicting reports, and it was 9 o'clock in the morning before he was assured that the British were really continuing their march. The opportunity for attack, according to Washington's plan, was lost. A second skirmish took place between detachments of both armies, the Americans gaining the advantage.

At this stage of the conflict Lee sent orders to Wayne to move to the right and capture the enemy's rear guard. This looked like a retreat to the rest of the commanders, and they left their positions and fell back some distance, when Lee sent his tardy orders to stand fast. By this time the entire division was in retreat. This the British saw and were not slow to take advantage of. Lee watched his detachments retreat across the ravine and then, seeing that they were safe, followed them, to find that Washington had come up with the main army and taken command himself. In a moment the atmosphere changed. The vacillation of the troops was gone, and they responded to the command of Washington's vigorous leadership. The Commander-in-chief ordered the nearest officers to hold the ground, while he formed the main army. The retreating troops were quick to join those in position. When Lee, last of all, came across the ravine, Washington met him and reproached him in terms as angry as they were justifiable. Lee's military career was practically ended. He was soon after brought to trial before a court-martial, found guilty of disobedience to orders, misbehavior before the enemy, disrespect to the Commander-in-chief, and was sentenced to suspension from command for a year. The British soon advanced, but the Continentals stood firm, and Lafayette prevented Clinton from deflanking the position. Not until 5 o'clock in the afternoon did the British fall back. The loss was about three hundred and fifty on each side. Clinton marched on to New York without further interruption, Washington following him. The Americans encamped upon White Plains, where they could watch the enemy. Late in July the Count D'Estaing arrived from France with a squadron of twelve ships, carrying four thousand troops. This fleet was intended for the relief of Philadelphia, but did not reach the Delaware until that city had been evacuated. It finally put in at Newport, and at its approach twenty-one English vessels were burned to avoid capture. The Continentals had been in great hopes that D'Estaing would put in at the harbor of New York, but he claimed that the water there was not sufficient. Not a little dissatisfaction was felt, but this was soon forgotten in a determination to be grateful for his aid. It was decided that the French and American armies were to co-operate in an attack upon Newport, where

General Pigot was stationed with six thousand British and Hessians. There were ten thousand Continentals in Rhode Island, under the command of Sullivan. Sullivan agreed with D'Estaing that an attack should be made on August 10th, but he moved before that date and neglected to inform the French commander of his change of purpose. On the 9th, when the French were ready to co-operate, a fleet of thirty-six vessels, under Lord Howe, appeared at sea, and D'Estaing re-embarked his men and put out after them, but no battle followed, for the fleets were overtaken by a terrible storm which scattered them. Sullivan thought best to push on, even without the French troops. He forced the enemy to withdraw within their lines of intrenchment, covered his own men with earthworks, and waited for D'Estaing's return. The French commander, instead of returning, went to Boston to have his fleet repaired. It was a bitter disappointment to the Continentals. Sullivan was doubtful about the safety of attacking under the circumstances, for D'Estaing steadily refused to separate his men from the ships. But on the 29th an engagement took place, which was provoked by Sullivan. In the end the Americans were driven from their positions, though with a loss of only one-fifth as large as that sustained by the British. On the following day Sullivan learned that Pigot was to be reinforced by Clinton with five thousand men, and he therefore began a hasty retreat across the country. Clinton finding there were no soldiers to fight, set fire to New Bedford and Fair Haven and all the vessels at their wharves. Howe sailed to Boston and challenged D'Estaing to battle, but he was not yet ready for sea, and when his fleet was at length refitted he sailed for the West India station without any further effort to help the American cause.

While these hostilities were being conducted along the coast, in the west the Tories and the Indians were still keeping up frequent though irregular hostilities. In the battle of Oriskany, the year before, more than one hundred Indians had been slain, and in the tribes of the Six Nations there was a thirst for revenge. Joseph Brant was the most influential of all their chiefs. He had been educated among the whites, and having naturally an active mind and a savage nature, was now a most formidable leader. He was attached to the Tory interest of central New York by a sort of relationship with Sir William Johnson. The Tories did not disdain to use him as one of their chief allies, and among the Whigs he was dreaded without measure. From July to November of 1778, a merciless warfare was kept up by the Tories and Indians on the defenseless Whigs. The warfare extended all along the

valley of the Susquehanna, northward through the west of Albany. Villages were burned, and men, women and children murdered. Toward the last of June two forts were taken at Wyoming, and many of the inhabitants of the valley were obliged to fly for their lives to Fort Forty. Colonel Zebulon Butler had command of the garrison here, and foolishly moved out against the Tories and Indians, who had a much larger force than he. All but sixty of his three hundred men were killed. As the news of this terrible massacre spread through the valley, the people fled from their homes to the woods and mountains, or sought protection at Fort Wyoming. In a little while this fort was also surrendered on a promise that the settlers should be permitted to return to their farms. But, as might have been expected, this promise was broken and many of the farmers, with their wives and children, were slain. About this time Joseph Brant had entered the settlement of Springfield, at Oswego Lake, and burnt every house in the village except one, in which he had had the humanity to place the women and children. Two months later Brant, with a large body of followers, destroyed the settlement of German Flats, in the valley of the Mohawk. For ten miles not a house or field was left unmolested. Early in November a terrible fate overtook Cherry Valley, a village remarkable for the refinement and virtue of its inhabitants. The people were staunch patriots, and were, therefore, sure targets for Tory vengeance. Nearly fifty persons were killed here in the course of one day, and all but sixteen were women and children. The fort was not taken, but most of the buildings in the village were burned.

Still farther west the warfare was waged as mercilessly. The territory which is now the States of Tennessee, Ohio and Kentucky was then thinly settled with pioneers. It was three years since Daniel Boone had blazed a trace in the wilderness west of Virginia. The men who followed him were among the bravest and most enduring of the nation. Hunting and fighting were necessary to their bare existence. Their deeds of endurance and fortitude are among the most romantic tales of history. They had settled, unfortunately, upon what was considered the common hunting grounds of both the northern and southern Indians, and the savages naturally resented the encroachment upon their lands. The terrible disasters which overtook the pioneers of that region caused it to be called "the Dark and Bloody Ground." The English added fuel to their hatred, and many of the expeditions against the unfortunate settlers were inspired at Detroit, Vincennes and Kaskaskia by the commanders of the garrisons there.

Colonel George Rogers Clark, one of the hardy pioneers of Kentucky, determined to strike at the source of this mischief. Patrick Henry, who was then Governor of Virginia, gave him aid, and Clark got together a band of one hundred and fifty men, and in May, 1778, went down the Ohio. At Corn Island, by the falls of the Ohio, he built a block-house as a depot for provisions, and leaving five men in charge, went on with his force, which had now increased a little. While he was gone, these five men built cabins where Louisville now stands. He left his boat at the mouth of the Tennessee and marched across to Kaskaskia. Here he surrounded and took the town. He sent the Governor to Virginia, and exacted an oath of allegiance to the United States from the people. Cahokia was soon taken in the same manner, and after that Vincennes, on the Wabash. It was in the autumn of 1778 that the county of Illinois was first recognized and a civil commandant appointed. Governor Hamilton, of Detroit, soon recovered Vincennes, where Clark had left only two men in the fort. Hamilton was not aware of this fact, and approached with eight hundred men, demanding a surrender. The captain refused till he knew the terms. Hamilton conceded the honors of war, and the captain and his one man marched out with dignity between the surprised columns of the enemy. Late the following winter Clark marched from Kaskaskia through the swamps of that country and retook the fort. Hamilton was sent as a prisoner of war to Virginia. The Indians, who were always anxious to be on the strongest side, now became the friends of the Americans.

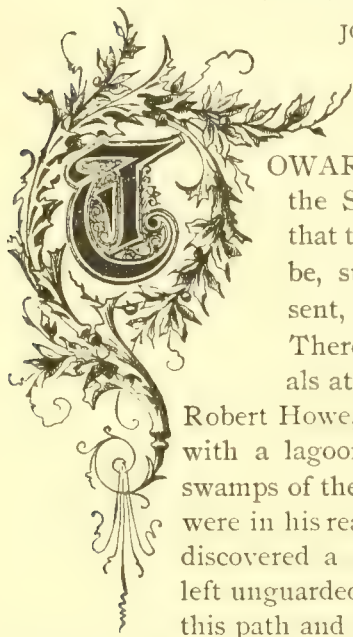
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- HISTORY—Moore's "Treason of Charles Lee."
BIOGRAPHY—Abbott's "Life of Boone."
Stone's "Life of Brant."
FICTION—H. Peterson's "Pemberton."
POETRY—Hopkinson's "Battle of the Kegs."
Campbell's "Gertrude of Wyoming."
William Collins' "Mollie Pitcher at Monmouth."

CHAPTER LXI.

The "Bon Homme Richard."

BRITISH REDUCTION OF GEORGIA—THE DESTRUCTION OF NEW
HAVEN—THE AMERICANS CAPTURE STONY POINT—
THE GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT OF
JOHN PAUL JONES.



TOWARD the close of the year the war drifted to the South. The ministry of England still held that the southern colonies ought to be, and could be, subdued. Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell was sent, with two thousand men, to reduce Savannah. There were twelve or fifteen hundred Continentals at that place, under the command of General Robert Howe, of North Carolina. He was well situated, with a lagoon in front, a morass on the right and the swamps of the river on the left. The works of the town were in his rear and he thought himself safe, but Campbell discovered a path through the swamps, which had been left unguarded. A detachment, led by a negro, went over this path and turned Howe's right. At the same time an attack was made in front, and the Americans beat a confused retreat into the town, losing over five hundred in killed and as prisoners, as well as baggage and artillery. In a short time Campbell was in possession of Augusta, and the people of Georgia were obliged to acknowledge royal rule. Throughout Georgia and the other southern colonies there had been a fierce partisan warfare. Nowhere else in the colonies had there been neighborhood feuds as bitter as in those States. The loyal and patriot parties were about equally divided all through the South, and first one and then the other would be in the ascendancy. As soon as Campbell took Augusta a company of Tories assembled for the purpose of joining him, but they were intercepted by a band of Whigs. Seventy men were captured, tried for treason, and five of them



THE ASSAULT ON STONY POINT.

were hanged. In March, 1779, five hundred North Carolina militia were ordered to move down the Savannah towards the enemy, who had left Augusta. The Patriots were surprised by the Tories, two hundred men killed or wounded and the rest frightened into dispersing with as much speed as possible. Occurrences of this sort were not unfrequent. A party feeling existed everywhere, and neighbors whose plantations adjoined each other waged as bitter war against one another as if they had been denizens of different countries. The militia could not be relied on, for they were likely at any time to leave their duties and hasten home to the protection of their households against private enemies.

By the 11th of May the English commander was before Charleston and summoned it to surrender. This Moultrie and the other military leaders would not consent to, and in the engagement which followed the English were obliged to move back upon Savannah. In the course of the summer General Clinton sent down several expeditions for the purpose of harassing the people. Along the Virginian coast many merchant vessels were burned and large quantities of provisions destroyed. General Tryon landed at New Haven on the 5th of July with three thousand men. The move was an unexpected one, and there were no soldiers to oppose him. But the people armed, and the Yale students formed themselves into a military company, Dr. Daggett, the president of the college, sending his daughter to a place of safety and then shouldering his musket to fight with his pupils. He was, unfortunately, taken prisoner. The inhabitants did all that they could to check the progress of the enemy, but the Hessian and British soldiers filled the town and indulged in every sort of outrage. The houses were robbed, the men murdered and a scene of debauchery and cruelty followed which was a disgrace to civilized soldiers. Norwalk and Green's Farms were visited next and treated in the same manner.

Washington had placed his force so as to cover West Point. He had recovered Stony Point, which Clinton had taken from him but a short time previous. The attack for recovery was made at midnight on July 15th. Every soldier had a badge of white paper fastened to his hat, that he might be distinguished from the enemy. Each man was to shout, "The fort is our own," as he entered the works. Between the point and the mainland was a neck, which, at the hour of the attack, was covered by the tide about two feet deep. While crossing this, fire was opened upon the Americans from the guns. The Americans had been ordered by Anthony Wayne, who led them, not to

fire, but to depend entirely on their bayonets. The English stood by their guns crying, "Come on, ye damned rebels, come on," to which Wayne's men cheerfully responded, "Don't be in such a hurry, my lads; we will be with you presently"—and they were, although they had to scramble up the steep ascent and over the abatis with the English fire upon them. The attack was one of those impetuous ones which none could lead so successfully as "Mad Anthony Wayne." He was struck in the forehead with a ball, but insisted on being carried into the fort by his men. The entire capture had not taken more than half an hour, and by it the Americans gained nearly fifteen hundred prisoners, fifteen pieces of cannon, and large quantities of stores and ammunition. This defeat delayed Clinton's advance and caused him to postpone indefinitely the movement upon Connecticut.

A little later than this he met with another surprise in the loss of the post at Paulus Hook, now Jersey City. On the 19th of August, Major Henry Lee, with five companies of southern troopers, carried the place by assault without firing a shot. They were hotly pursued, but took one hundred and fifty prisoners with them in safety. Clinton sent out a naval expedition in August, which had an engagement near the mouth of the Penobscot, in which they were successful. In this affair the American colonists showed a lack of courage and judgment.

Not more than a month after this, General Paul Jones fought his great battle upon the sea. It was the most important event of the year, and indeed one of the most remarkable battles which ever took place upon the ocean. The contest upon the sea up to this time had been barely respectable. It was mostly a warfare of privateers, with plunder for its aim. Congress had been anxious for a navy, and had made all the efforts possible for establishing one. But their means were limited, and the work had been left mostly to the small frigates and privateering vessels, who, in their way, did not a little work for the Revolution. In the year 1777 two hundred and fifty British vessels were captured by American cruisers before the 1st of February. By the end of that year the number taken was four hundred and sixty-seven. The most successful of all the seamen was Paul Jones. All along the English coast he was held in terror and dread. To him the King of France gave an old Indiaman, fitted out as a man-of-war. This Paul Jones named the *Bon Homme Richard*. This cruised along the west coast of Ireland and the north of Scotland for more than a month, with two consorts, the *Alliance* and the *Paulus*. On the 22d of February they came in sight of a fleet of merchantmen under convoy of two frigates.

One of these, the *Scrapis*, carried fifty guns, the other, the *Countess of Scarborough*, carried twenty-two. Jones gave the signal for pursuit as they were off Flamborough Head, on the coast of Yorkshire. He was not altogether in good condition for fight, for his crew had been reduced to man prizes, and his prisoners were two-thirds as numerous as his remaining crew. Besides, the *Scrapis* was a new frigate. She had twenty guns on each of her decks, main and upper, and ten lighter ones on her quarter deck and forecastle. The *Richard* had only six guns on her lower deck, which were all on the same side. Above these, on the main deck, were fourteen guns on each side. She had a high quarter and forecastle, with eight guns on these, and was of old-fashioned build, with a high poop, so that her lower deck was but little below her antagonist's main deck. It was after sunset, and a full moon had arisen, when the *Richard* came within hail of the *Scrapis*. Captain Pearson, of the latter frigate, spoke the *Richard* twice. For answer Jones opened fire. Unfortunately, at the very first, two heavy guns on the lower deck burst. Many of the men were killed by the explosion. The rest went up to the main deck. The *Scrapis* responded to the fire immediately. Jones pushed up closer, and as the heavy vessels swung around, the jib-boom of the *Scrapis* ran into the mizzen rigging of the *Richard*. Jones himself fastened the vessels together, and one of the anchors of the *Scrapis* caught the quarter of the *Richard*, lashing them fast. The *Scrapis* was so close to her antagonist that she could not open her ports on the starboard side, and her first shots were fired through her own port lids to free her guns. The fire from the main deck of the *Scrapis*, while it badly injured the *Richard*, had but little effect upon the men, who, as has been said, deserted the lower deck, where the cannonading did most execution, at the beginning. The upper guns of the *Richard*, of course, hung over the *Scrapis*, as the former vessel had greatly the advantage of height. Muskets were little used, for it was night and clouds of smoke enveloped the vessels. At length, after two hours of about equal fighting, the men in the *Richard's* tops began throwing hand-grenades upon the deck of the *Scrapis*, and one sailor, who had worked himself out to the end of the main yard with a bucket filled with grenades, lighted them one by one and threw them down the hatchway of the *Scrapis*. They fell among a row of eighteen-pounder cartridges. The row was lighted, and in the explosion which followed, twenty men were blown to pieces. Many others were frightfully burned. Some of them were stripped naked, leaving nothing but the collars of their shirts and their wrist-bands

upon them. This roused them to desperation, and they made an attempt to board the *Richard*. They were met by Jones with a spike in his hand at the head of his men. The English were forced to fall back. At half past ten, Pearson, of the *Scrapis*, struck his colors, but the fight was so equal that the men upon the *Richard* hardly knew, when the cry "they have struck" came, whether it was Pearson or Jones who had yielded. There is a story that when Pearson delivered his sword to Jones he said: "I cannot, sir, but feel much mortification at the idea of surrendering my sword to a man who has fought me with a rope around his neck." Naturally this reproach did not in the least discomfort Jones. He returned the sword courteously, saying, "You have fought gallantly, sir, and I hope your King will give you a better ship." When Jones heard afterward that Pearson had been knighted for his intrepid action, he remarked: "He deserved it, and if I fall in with him again I will make a lord of him." When morning dawned the *Richard* was found to be sinking. The fires on her had not been put out, and she had been sadly torn to pieces. The wounded were, therefore, removed to the *Scrapis* and were followed by the crew, who watched the gallant *Richard* sink to the bottom. The King of France presented Jones a sword, and Congress gave him a vote of thanks. Jones' action was the last important one between the English and the American ships in the war. The French fleet was relieving the American government from the expense of maintaining a navy. For the most part the naval actions during the remainder of the war were between privateers, of which there were a large number.

FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Tarleton's "History of the Southern Campaign."
 Lee's "War in the Southern Department."
 Hawk's "Revolutionary History of North Carolina."
 Drayton's "Revolution in the Carolinas."
 BIOGRAPHY—McKenzie's "Paul Jones."
 FICTION—Cooper's "The Pilot."
 T. Mirgge's "Paul Jones."
 A. Cunningham's "Paul Jones."
 Dumas' "Captain Paul."



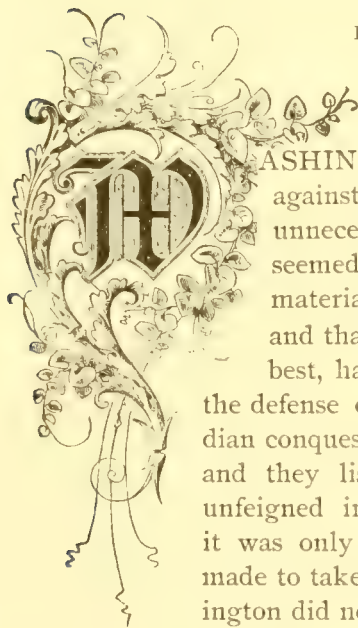
RED JACKET.

From West's painting. Engraved by Daniell.

CHAPTER LXII.

The Six Nations.

EXPEDITION AGAINST THE SIX NATIONS—THE CIVILIZATION OF THE
INDIANS—HUMILIATION OF THE SIX NATIONS—EXPE-
DITION UP THE MISSISSIPPI FROM LOUIS-
IANA—TRIUMPH OF CLINTON
IN THE SOUTH.



WASHINGTON was opposed to the movement against Canada. He thought it involved an unnecessary waste of lives and money, and it seemed to him that the great cause would not be materially affected by victory in that direction, and that the army of the nation, feeble enough at best, had need to concentrate its attention upon the defense of American homes. The plan of Canadian conquest had been a favorite one with Congress, and they listened to Washington's objections with unfeigned irritation. When at length they yielded, it was only upon condition that an effort should be made to take the British fort at Niagara. This Washington did not altogether approve of, but he hoped, by sending an expedition against that fort, to severely

punish the Six Nations, from whose atrocities the frontier settlements still continued to suffer. Early in 1779, preparations were made for carrying the war into Central New York and Western Pennsylvania. The command was given to Sullivan. The directions from Washington were that he was to seem to have Niagara as his destination, but the punishment of the Indians was to be his sole object. These commands Sullivan followed closely, never approaching within seventy-five miles of Fort Niagara. But the spring and the summer passed before Sullivan was able to move. Congress showed its usual indifference, and the men were in no way provisioned for such an expe-

dition. At one time all the officers in the New Jersey brigade sent in their resignations. In doing so, not even Washington could accuse them of lack of patriotism. Their families were actually suffering for the necessities of life, for the soldiers had received no pay for months. The officers insisted that they must return to their homes and provide for their families. Washington made a protest to the New Jersey legislature, which brought help for the time being, and the men resumed their duties. Before Sullivan could obtain supplies for his men he had to indulge in reproaches to Congress which were more candid than courteous, and which made him many enemies.

It was late in August when Sullivan was ready to move. He found the enemy in force near Elmira. This force was placed in a position protected on two sides by a bend in the river, and strengthened in front by a breastwork which was artfully hidden by woods and underbrush. Into this ambush it was expected that the American forces would march. Joseph Brant led the Indians, and the Butlers, father and son, fiercest among the Tories, were the commanders of the loyal militia. The Americans knew well that should they fall into the hands of such enemies, no quarter would be shown, and in case of defeat, victory would be turned into massacre. But this stratagem was not successful. A rifleman who had climbed a tall tree discovered the whole plan, and by his discovery defeated it. Sullivan had three thousand men, led by able and experienced officers. He sent a portion of his army to face the Indians and force them into fight. Another portion was sent quietly through woods and swamps for an attack on the rear and flank. The enemy was caught in its own trap, and when the artillery broke in upon them from the rear, crying, "Remember Wyoming!" they took to headlong flight.

Sullivan's army resumed its march in two days, and for weeks kept on its way leaving behind it the most utter desolation. Never before had Indians attained such a degree of civilization. They had built themselves towns and comfortable log huts, conveniently furnished and surrounded by excellent orchards and fields. Sullivan spared none of these. His relentless destruction set back the civilization of the Indian permanently. Never since, except among the Cherokees, have they shown the industry, frugality and self-respect which they did at that time. Thousands of fruit-bearing trees were cut down. Two hundred bushels of Indian corn and immense quantities of potatoes, beans and other products of their farms and gardens were destroyed, as well as forty villages. The Indians were left with neither shelter nor food to

carry them through the winter, which was close at hand, and which proved to be one of terrible severity. It was little wonder that when any of Sullivan's men fell into their hands they were tortured in that manner of ingenious cruelty of which only the savage is capable. Sullivan went as far as the most western settlement of the Six Nations, called Seneca Castle. From here he retraced his footsteps, having lost, in a long series of encounters, only forty men. Upon rejoining Washington's army he resigned his commission. He had done the work appointed him and had done it well, but the reproaches which he had heaped upon Congress for their neglect of the national army caused them to accept his resignation without demur.

At this time, or a little before, an expedition was undertaken from Louisiana, which, in the final settlement between England and the United States, probably did more than anything else towards securing the territory west of the Mississippi to the United States. This expedition was led by Galvez, the young and ambitious Governor of Louisiana. A declaration of war had been made by Spain against England. The bonds of friendship between Spain and the United States were therefore strengthened, and Galvez joined with Pollock, the agent of Congress, in moving against the British forts, Manchac, Baton Rouge and Natchez. They also succeeded in capturing eight English vessels on Lake Pontchartrain, and a few months later took Mobile. The following year Pensacola, the last post in Florida in British possession, was also reduced by Galvez. But for this, in the final adjustment, the United States might have been bounded by the Mississippi river on the west.

The war had now lasted for five years. Clinton was still of the opinion that the quickest way to bring it to an end was to overrun the thinly settled southern country and compel the people to swear allegiance to the King. By dividing the Union there, it was hoped that the rebellion could be suppressed. The national army was in despair. Washington mustered only about fifteen thousand men, and of these not more than eleven or twelve thousand were in the ranks. The time was approaching when many of the terms of enlistment would expire. For months the pay of the soldiers had not been forthcoming. They were often hungry, all were poorly clothed, and some were actually naked. Had it not been for foreign loans, the nation could not have been sustained. It was this wretched army of half-starved men which Washington had to bring against Clinton's well-cared-for troops. A common commander would have done one of two things—he would either have

lost heart and surrendered, or brought on a rash attack to bring an end to these desperate straits. But Washington's military genius was equal to the occasion. His policy was to watch warily every movement of the enemy, to harass, annoy, delay, and to seize those rare opportunities where a blow could be struck in safety. Clinton was lacking in that energy which sustained Washington, and while it seemed to lie in his power to win victory, he preferred to remain passive. Clinton believed that should he make both the South and North points of attack that he could crush either one or the other, for Washington, it was obvious, could not divide his forces. Charleston was still in possession of the Americans, being held by General Lincoln. The Americans were anxious to regain Savannah, and a plan was laid by which D'Estaing was to return from the West Indies, join with Lincoln, and move upon Savannah for the purpose of recapturing it. They did so, and demanded surrender. The answer of Prevost, the commander of the fort, was one of defiance. A siege was sustained there for a month, but as Prevost showed no signs of yielding, an assault was made on October 9th. D'Estaing and Lincoln led the attack with their combined force of four thousand men. The French fleet in the harbor kept up a cannonading of shot and shell. The English had a strong defense, and from behind the abatis and earthworks, kept up a murderous fire. The American bravery displayed was superb. Sergeant Jasper, who had restored the flag to its place when it was shot down at Fort Moultrie, was killed here in defense of his colors. Between eleven and twelve hundred on the American side were killed, among them Count Pulaski. The British lost less than fifty. This ended the siege of Savannah. The French fleet set sail for the West Indies and Lincoln retreated to Charleston. Clinton now resolved upon energetic measures for the reduction of the whole South.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Ramsay's "American Revolution in South Carolina,"
Stone's "Border Wars of the American Revolution,"
"Siege of Savannah." Anon.

CHAPTER LXIII.

“Whom Can We Trust Now?”

PLANS OF THE TWO ARMIES—SIEGE OF CHARLESTON BY THE ENGLISH
—CAPTURE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY AT THE SOUTH—
THE BURNING OF CONNECTICUT FARMS—ARRIVAL OF ROCHAMBEAU—TREASON
OF GENERAL ARNOLD.



THE winter of 1779-80 was one of great severity. The sufferings of the American army at Morristown were almost unendurable, and even the English, in their comfortable quarters at New York, were not a little annoyed by the extreme cold. The English constantly expected an attack, for the ice was so solid that the town could be easily approached. Lord Stirling led his Continentals across the Kill on the ice, at Elizabethtown, to Staten Island, marched two thousand men north to the Narrows, and burned a fortified house and several vessels. Another party crossed the North river in sleighs, and marching to Newark, burned the Academy and sacked some of the houses. Expeditions of this sort served to keep the English in expectation of a general attack. Clinton's ambi-

tious designs for subduing the southern colonies were not a little delayed, and it was the middle of March before he was ready to take the final steps for investing Charleston. Meanwhile, the American envoys begged for more extensive help from France. Franklin and his associates, who represented America in France, were doing work of as much importance to the independence of this country, as were Washington and his devoted generals. Lafayette visited France to join his solicitations to those of Franklin. Together they persuaded the court to send nearly six thousand men, under Count De Rochambeau. The expedition was a splendid one. It sailed in April, at the time that Clinton appeared before Charleston and demanded surrender. General Lincoln, who was in command of the American defense at that

point, sent word that he should hold it to the last extremity. This he did. The English fleet crossed the harbor, and closed slowly around the city. The American troops, defending the city at the rear, were met by the enemy and defeated, so that all of Lincoln's available roads for retreat were cut off. On the eighth of May the town surrendered, and the Continental troops and seamen were held as prisoners of war. The entire southern army of America was thus in the hands of the British. Savannah and Charleston, the foremost seaports, were captured and held by the enemy. The British army in Georgia and South Carolina numbered nearly fourteen thousand men. Clinton's plan of subduing the southern colonies seemed to him, and to everyone else, only a question of time. In spite of all lessons, however, the English continued to under-estimate the inherent patriotism of the American heart. Clinton issued a proclamation requiring all persons to take an active part in settling and securing his majesty's government, and declaring that all who refused to do so should be considered enemies and rebels. In all of the southern States there were many who were willing to remain neutral, but comparatively few—aside, of course, from the open Royalists—who were willing to take up arms against their own countrymen. In the popular protest which was made to this proclamation, a Major James was sent to ask the commander of a British post at Georgetown for an explanation of the proclamation. The commander replied: "His majesty offers you a free pardon, of which you are undeserving, for you all ought to be hanged; but it is only on condition that you take up arms in his cause." Major James, the American, replied that those whom he represented would not submit to such conditions. "Represent! You damned rebel, if you dare speak in such language I will have you hung at the yard arm." James had no weapons, but for answer he knocked the British officer down with a chair and left him senseless. James and his four brothers were, after this, among the leaders of the partisans of the State.

When the news of the surrender of Charleston reached Morristown, it had a very dispiriting effect upon the troops. The English counted upon this, and on the sixth of June, six thousand troops were marched from Staten Island to the village of Connecticut Farms. The militia of the country fought every step of the way with them, falling back slowly and coolly before the superior numbers of the English, but they were unable to protect the village, and Connecticut Farms was burned. The wife of the Rev. James Caldwell was killed by a shot through the window of the room where she was sitting with her

children. A few days later, when the English had undertaken another movement, the husband of this murdered woman was among the leading spirits of the defense. The engagement took place at Springfield, and in spite of the utmost efforts of the Americans the place was taken and burnt. When the men were in want of wadding for their guns, Caldwell distributed hymn books among them with the exhortation, "Put Watts into'em, boys!" After the burning of Springfield, the enemy returned to Staten Island.

By the 11th of July, De Rochambeau arrived in Newport with his troops, now swelled by the addition of a fleet to twelve thousand men. Washington wished to move at once upon New York, but many of the French were ill from the effects of a troublous voyage, and their commander would not consent to action. So, to the great disappointment of the people and of the army, the autumn passed in inactivity.

As Washington was returning to his army from an interview with Rochambeau, at Hartford, in Connecticut, his unexpected arrival at West Point discovered the gigantic treason of General Arnold. Arnold was a man of proud and haughty spirit. As a soldier, his bravery and dash were never questioned. As a gentleman and a patriot, there was always some doubt of him in the minds of those who knew him best. His naturally arrogant nature had been irritated by the neglectful conduct of Congress in not paying that tribute to his ability which he felt that it deserved. This is urged as his only motive for his treasonable actions. For several months he corresponded with the British Commander-in-chief, giving him all the military and civil news which could be of any use to the enemy. While Arnold was in command at Philadelphia, various charges had been brought against him by the State, for which he was taken before a court-martial. After a public rebuke from the Commander-in-chief, he was restored to the service and under pretense of being disabled from duty in the field by an old wound, was given the command of West Point. He took this for the sole purpose of betraying his trust and selling himself at a high price to the English. No post in the country was of greater importance to either side than that of West Point. It commanded the navigation of the Hudson, and to a degree the communication with Canada, as well as that between the Northern and Southern States. The garrison by which it was held numbered more than three thousand men. These were defended by one hundred guns. With the betrayal of the place, large stores of provisions, ammunition, and the greater part of the men would inevitably fall into the hands of the English, and a blow

would be struck at the American cause which would render success more than doubtful.

In order to make the final arrangements, it was necessary that a personal interview should be held between Arnold and some representatives of General Clinton. Major Andre was the officer chosen by Clinton, as being a man of discretion and bravery. Arnold dared not trust any one on his own side with a knowledge of his villainy, and determined to converse with Clinton's emissary himself. He determined, too, to take as little personal risk as possible, and after making several ineffectual efforts to induce Andre to come within the American lines, he at last succeeded. It became necessary that if the plan was to be carried out, it should be done immediately, and under stress of this pressure Andre consented to leave the British ship, on which he had put himself that he might be nearer to Arnold, and to come on shore within the American lines. Hiding his uniform under a long overcoat, he took a boat and was rowed to the foot of Long Clove Mountain, about six miles below Stony Point, where he met Arnold. There, hidden in the bushes, the conspirators talked through the night. At dawn, Andre was taken to Arnold's headquarters and concealed there. To escape with his news was a difficult matter. The vessel in which he had been brought had moved farther down the river, and he was obliged to risk a ride through the country. To provide against suspicion, Arnold gave his confederate a pass made out to John Anderson, which allowed him to pass White Plains and beyond. Mounted upon a good horse, Andre began his perilous ride through the country. He was within half a mile of Tarrytown, when he was stopped by three men who wished to know his business and destination. How so brilliant a man could have blundered in the carrying out of a scheme of such paramount importance, it is not easy to see, but in the alarm of the moment he confided that he was a British officer. The men took him to the nearest military post. Here the pass of John Anderson seemed to be a sufficient explanation of his presence. But his gait betrayed the fact that he was a soldier, and the matter was investigated.

No one was willing to believe that one of the most trusted generals of the American army was a stupendous traitor, and it was some time before that idea even occurred to any one. The commander of the post to which Andre was taken wrote a letter to Arnold concerning the mysterious person, John Anderson, and asking an explanation. When Arnold received it he was at breakfast with two of Washington's aids.



ESCAPE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

He saw that his treason would soon be known in all its enormity. He quietly went into another room, told his wife, in a few hurried words, of his peril, mounted a horse at his door, and riding to the river side, took a boat. Then, tying his handkerchief to his cane as a flag of truce, he sailed to the British ship, the *Vulture*. It was afternoon before his escape was noticed.

Andre was hung. He had risked his life to oblige his commander, and under the promise of the reward of a large sum of money. He failed in his scheme, and received the punishment due a spy. It has been the fashion, both in England and America, to sympathize with him greatly because he was young, high born, scholarly and brave, but he did not act the part of a hero in the cause in which he died. No one who has read history can help contrasting his dramatic self-consciousness—for he wrote and talked much about his sense of honor and his bravery—with the modesty and devotion of Nathan Hale, the spy who died regretting that he had not another life to give his country. Washington offered to exchange Andre for Arnold, but Clinton was a man of honor, and would not break his word to a traitor, even to save a man who was the victim of his plans and his friend.

The British government showed its gratitude to Arnold by giving him a commission as Brigadier-General in the army, and 6,315 pounds sterling in money. His wife and all of his children were pensioned, and throughout their lives received half pay as retired officers. But Arnold received no more respect among the English than among his own countrymen. Later, in the southern campaign, Cornwallis positively refused to have him in his command. That spirit of brilliant daring which had distinguished him in the American army never again showed itself. In the victories which he won for the English he showed more of the spirit of a murderer and a marauder than of a general.

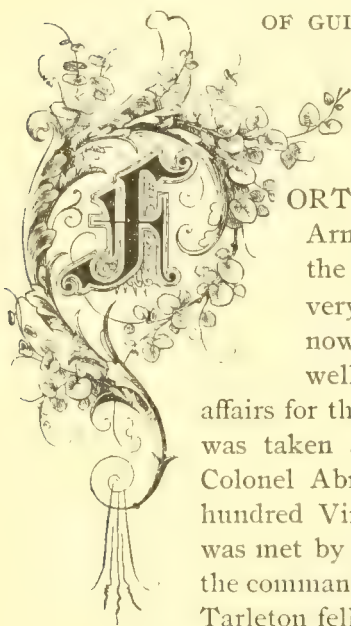
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- "Trial of Major John Andre."
- "New York City in the American Revolution."
- Tuckerman's "America and her Commentators" (French auxiliaries.)
- BIOGRAPHY—J. N. Arnold's "Life of Arnold."
- FICTION—E. P. Roe's "Near to Nature's Heart."
- POETRY—Harte's "Caldwell, of Springfield."
- Freneau's "Arnold's Departure."
- Bradley's "Andre's Last Moments."
- DRAMA—Calvert's "Arnold and Andre."
- Lord's "Andre."
- Dunlap's "Andre."

CHAPTER LXIV.

"I Have Sent You a General."

CORNWALLIS AND GATES AT THE SOUTH—THE COMMAND OF THE
SOUTHERN FORCE GIVEN TO GENERAL GREEN—THE
BATTLE OF KING'S MOUNTAIN—BATTLE
OF GUILFORD COURT HOUSE.



FORTUNATELY no serious harm came of Arnold's treachery, but to the people, and to the Commander-in-chief in particular, it was very discouraging. "Whom can we trust now?" asked Washington, sadly. It might well be a moment of gloom, for in the South, affairs for the time seemed hopeless. After Charleston was taken and the army moved through the State, Colonel Abraham Beaufort was sent, with about four hundred Virginian troops, to harass the enemy. He was met by thirty cavalry and mounted infantry under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Bamastre Tarleton. Tarleton fell upon the Americans without giving them time for defense, and when they threw down their arms and begged for mercy, he cruelly killed them. It was not a battle, but a massacre, and won for Tarleton that reputation for cruelty by which he is remembered to this day. Had not the country been filled with partisans likely to rise at any time, this might have seemed the end of the war in the South, but since there was not a citizen who was not likely at any time to become a soldier, it was impossible to tell when the country was conquered. The loyal partisans of the Carolinas and of Georgia were obliged to content themselves at this time by harassing the enemy in every way possible. Sumpter, Davie, Marion and many others were the leaders of desperate bands of men who hid themselves in the swamps and thick woods of the southern country, and sallied

forth at unexpected moments to annoy and injure the enemy. The camp of Marion was hid in the swamps of the Pedee, and so securely concealed, that even his men had sometimes to search for hours before they found it.

Cornwallis, a soldier on the old plan, used to military precision and well-regulated warfare, was not a little chagrined and vexed by hostilities of this sort. He was never certain where he would find the enemy, and when he did find them he could not rely upon their keeping in battle array. They were very much more apt to disperse, baffle pursuit, and only appear again when they could strike an unexpected blow. When he learned that Baron De Kalb was marching southward with Maryland and Delaware troops, Cornwallis was prompt in his measures to intercept them. Gates had now been appointed by Congress to conduct the campaign, and he hastened forward with cavalry from Virginia and North Carolina, for the purpose of forming a junction with De Kalb. The American army numbered three thousand men, most of whom were raw recruits, without discipline, sufficient arms, or comfortable clothing. The British troops were veterans, but were fewer in number than the Americans. Gates wished to wage active warfare, although he must have known that his men could not be relied upon to stand steady fire. Gates sent Marion with his men into South Carolina on a reconnoissance, ordering him to destroy all the bridges and boats on his way, that the British might have no means of escaping to Charleston should they be defeated. But Cornwallis had no intention of being defeated. He was as anxious as Gates for action, and with far better cause. On the 15th of August, 1780, both armies moved, each with the intention of surprising the other. At the first fire the Americans broke ranks and fled, but a portion of the militia had the courage to check the advance, and the fight continued till night forced them to desist. When morning dawned Cornwallis was able to take in all the weakness of his opponents. He posted his best men opposite the untried Virginia militia, who, as he expected, fired a single shot, threw away their arms and fled. The panic spread along the lines, and a great part of the army fled without a blow. The Continentals, under De Kalb and Gist, fought with coolness and decision, pushing the enemy before them. But they were finally so hard pressed that one-third of them were killed or wounded and the rest were forced to seek safety in the woods. De Kalb, the distinguished French commander, fell under eleven wounds. His clothing was stripped from him by the soldiers, and it was only when he was discovered by Corn-

wallis that any attention was paid to his needs. Gates' army was practically annihilated, and the militia, who never felt under obligations to remain in organized force, returned to their homes. Within a few days Gates gathered together such of his men as could be found, with the intention of forming a new army, making his headquarters one hundred and eighty miles from his dreadful defeat.

Cornwallis determined to subdue South Carolina before Congress could send another army. With Tarleton and Ferguson, two unrelenting persecutors of patriots, to help him, he started out on a journey through the State. In many of the smaller engagements all through the southern country Cornwallis had had reason to believe that success would soon crown the English arms. He therefore followed the Americans with enthusiasm and on the 8th of October fought the battle of King's Mountain, near the boundary line of North and South Carolina. Here Cornwallis suffered, losing about one-fourth of his fighting force. He sent to New York for reinforcements and spent the time mainly in attempts to meet with Sumpter, or Marion, or some of the other partisan leaders who waged constant hostilities. In the autumn, Green arrived to take command of the remnant of the army which Gates had so nearly destroyed. He came with Washington's warm recommendation, but it was feared that he could do little, so reduced was the southern army and so illy provided with necessities. Green did not believe that the army could sustain an active campaign, and began with a policy exactly opposite to that of Gates. His plan was to avoid a general battle as long as possible, to delay the enemy at every step of his progress—to tire him out, as it were. His army moved into South Carolina in two bodies, the larger part of which was commanded by the General himself and the other by Morgan. Green moved steadily towards Cornwallis, and only halted when he was about seventy miles east of him. Tarleton was sent in pursuit of Morgan, who, it was feared, threatened the whole line of posts in the rear of the British army. So great was his anxiety that Cornwallis himself, instead of moving upon Green, tried to intercept Morgan. This American general was therefore forced into an engagement. He chose a field of open woods in which his cavalry could easily manœuvre, and behind which there were two hills which he could use in case of need as a protection. He posted four hundred men on the first eminence and in front placed militia and skirmishers. On the second eminence was Colonel Washington's famous cavalry and a corps of mounted infantry. Behind them were the horses and militia, ready either for pursuit or

flight. Eight hundred men were on the field and all were so well disposed, that when Tarleton looked at them he thought that the enemy was at least two thousand strong. The English came on with a rush—one of those charges which have made them famous in battle fields all over the world. They were met with a deadly fire, and when the first line was broken through, the second stood valiantly for a time and then gave way. Colonel Washington, with his cavalry, charged upon the wing, broke straight through a line and charged again from the rear. He found himself then at the rear of the other wing of the forces, and fell upon them there, while Morgan conducted the conflict in front. The English prayed for quarter, and it was with much difficulty that the American commanders kept their soldiers from slaughtering Tarleton's men as Tarleton's men had slaughtered so many of their comrades. Tarleton lost six hundred prisoners out of his thousand men; one hundred were dead upon the field; his two guns, his colors, eight hundred muskets, one hundred dragoon horses and a large part of his baggage train were in the hands of the enemy. Upon the American side only twelve were killed and sixty wounded. But still Green knew that discretion compelled him to act upon the defensive rather than the offensive. His orders to Morgan were, therefore, to retreat and join the main army, which he did. Cornwallis pushed on through the State, and Green slowly retreated before him in good order.

The American army grew, by reinforcements from the Virginia and Carolina militia, to forty-three hundred men, but as nearly three-fourths of this force were raw recruits, the strength of the army was not materially added to. March 15, 1781—the winter having been passed by Green in eluding Cornwallis—Green made a stand near Guilford Court House and awaited the enemy. The battle field was well chosen, the men being under good commanders. They were well placed, and there was no essential point of weakness except the inexperience of the greater part of the men. The British, as usual, advanced steadily and quickly, and as usual the American militia fired one shot and then fled. But a few of them held their ground until the British charged with their bayonets, then they also fled, and the conflict was left to Green's regulars who fought desperately. Colonel Washington, with his splendid cavalry, was there, in which one expert swordsman cut down thirteen of the enemy. There were many hand-to-hand encounters. The fight was a desperate one, but Cornwallis' force was so held that in the end the Americans retreated, though they did so slowly and in good order. Cornwallis lost nearly one-fourth of his army. The victory

was with the British, but they paid far too great a price for it. Green's army was too exhausted to venture an attack the next day and Cornwallis, who said that he was tired of going about the Carolinas in search of adventure, wrote a letter to his Commander-in-chief, begging that he might be allowed to quit the Carolinas and put his army in march for Wilmington. Green started after him in hurried pursuit, but he was not able to overtake him.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Draper's "King's Mountain and its Heroes."

FICTION—W. G. Simms' "The Partisan."

C. H. Wiley's "Alamance."

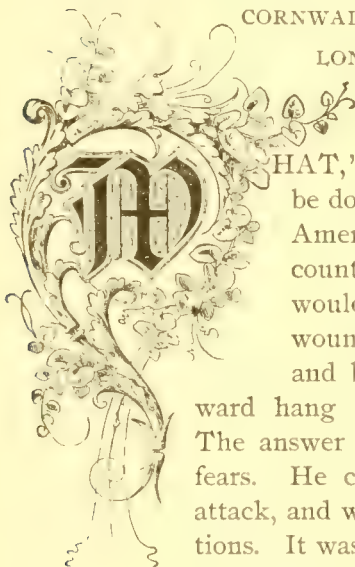
POETRY—"Battle of King's Mountain."

William C. Bryant's "Song of Marion's Men."

CHAPTER LXV.

The United States of America.

ARNOLD'S EXPEDITION—BATTLE BETWEEN CORNWALLIS AND LAFAYETTE—THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN AND SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS—THE SACKING OF NEW LONDON BY ARNOLD.



"HAT," Arnold once asked of a prisoner, "would be done with me if I should be captured by the Americans?" The prisoner replied: "If my countrymen should catch you, I believe they would cut off that lame leg, which was wounded in the cause of freedom and virtue, and bury it with the honors of war, and afterward hang the remainder of your body on gibbets." The answer was, probably, a reflex of Arnold's own fears. He could no longer be relied upon for daring attack, and was sent by Clinton upon marauding expeditions. It was he who was selected to lead the expedition to Virginia, the sole purpose of which was harassing and ravaging any part of the country where he could do so with safety to his men. Arnold had with him a force of nine hundred. He landed at Westover, on the James river, and marched to Richmond. Here he divided his troops, remaining, himself, in Richmond, to destroy much private property, military stores and public archives. The detachment which he had sent on an excursion of destruction was met by Baron Steuben, but not checked by him. Arnold went as far as Portsmouth, wreaking his anger and bitterness upon the country he passed through. Congress and the Commander-in-chief were seriously distressed. Their impulse was to send immediate help, but this they were in a bad condition to do. Thirteen hundred Pennsylvania men had mutinied. There had been a misunderstanding about the term of their enlistment, and the neglect which they had sustained at the hands of Congress irritated them beyond endurance.

They were not lacking, as their many hard-fought fields testified, in patriotism, but their physical suffering, added to a sense of having been imposed upon, was more than they could patiently stand. That they were patriotic, is shown by the fact that the emissaries sent by Sir Henry Clinton, offering them aid and protection if they would join the English standard, were delivered to the proper authorities to be executed as spies. With a great effort the States raised a large sum of money to quiet the complaints of the soldiers. In February, Washington was able to make preparations for a campaign in Virginia, which should oppose Arnold's progress. He sent a detachment of twelve hundred New England troops, under Lafayette. These he ordered to the head of Chesapeake bay, where they were to embark for the lower part of Virginia. The British fleet had been recently disabled by a storm, and Washington was anxious that his French allies should seize this time to send the whole French squadron to the bay, in aid of the movement under Lafayette. These started, but in an engagement with the English were defeated, and sent back to Newport. When Clinton heard this, he sent General Phelps, with an additional force of two thousand men, to take command in Virginia. These followed the same plan which Arnold's troops had done. They did not fight, but they ravaged. Steuben was sent to pursue him, and the two generals chased each other about the country, without either much profit or harm. The great point with the English was to deprive Green of men and supplies.

Cornwallis was still at the south, and hoped to conquer the colonies by moving northward from Georgia. When his force moved up to join that of Arnold and Phelps, Lafayette was largely outnumbered, and he fell back to make a junction with Antony Wayne, who was approaching with eight hundred Pennsylvania men. Cornwallis had little respect for Lafayette. So boyish was the young French general that the Englishman could not believe that he understood or could apply military tactics. But the first engagement between the forces was a drawn battle. Lafayette's men in the retreat were manœuvred with cleverness. The vexation of Cornwallis was added to by the fact that Clinton begged him to send three thousand of his men northward to his relief. Cornwallis was ordered to put himself behind the defences at Portsmouth, and, as soon as he started for this place, Lafayette followed after in close pursuit. Lafayette received some severe checks on this march.

Green, meantime, was marching southward. One of the English forts was taken. This success was due to the erection of a wooden

tower of logs, so tall that it could overlook the stockade. Here the sharpshooters could pick off the garrison without danger to themselves. In course of time other forts were taken by the same means. Thus the hostilities at the South progressed. They were made up mostly of skirmishes, to which the name of battles could not be appropriately applied, but the fighting was fierce, and the consequences marked. The personal partisanship of the colonies grew, rather than decreased, and all the while a net was slowly closing about the English. Green was frequently defeated and compelled to retreat, but as the enemy followed up his forces, they became only the more enmeshed in the web which he was weaving about them. Washington himself crossed the Delaware and reinforced Lafayette. Following him, came Rochambeau with his force. Clinton was mewed in New York, and, as his call for reinforcements showed, was continually expecting an attack from Washington. In fact, Washington had been threatening that city all summer, and his rapid movements toward the South were unknown by Clinton for some time. De Grasse, the admiral of the French fleet, had been requested by Washington to come from the West Indies and join him in the Chesapeake. As Washington neared the lower part of that bay and learned that the summons had been promptly obeyed, he rode back to tell Rochambeau himself, waving his hat and calling to the French commander like a child. This, he felt sure, was the herald of victory and peace. Fifteen hundred men were carried down the Chesapeake Bay in boats to the mouth of the James river. The rest went to Annapolis by aid of the French frigates and then marched overland. Washington had time to stop for a day at his beautiful home, Mount Vernon, and to entertain Rochambeau and all the other officers for a few hurried hours. On the arrival of this large force Cornwallis withdrew behind the fortifications which he had built to defend Yorktown. The American and French generals promptly laid works by which the town might be approached—for the first time conducting a regular siege by the system of scientific and technical warfare. On September 30th the town was surrounded. Cornwallis did all that he could to annoy the men at work. This was the utmost that he could do. On October 9th fire was opened by the besiegers, and one by one the batteries and cannons of Cornwallis were rendered useless. He wrote a letter begging Clinton to come to his help lest army and navy should be lost. He made one attempt in the night to cross the York river and escape, but a violent storm put an end to these plans, and on October 19th this brave general surrendered upon honorable terms. His most

important redoubts had been carried by assault. He had been crowded within the innermost part of his works. All avenues of escape were shut off. There were many sick and wounded among his men, and it would have been selfish and grossly inhuman to have required more fighting from them. On the very day that he surrendered, Clinton sailed from New York to the relief of Yorktown, but learning that every British soldier in Virginia was a prisoner of war, put back again.

With it he sent the history of a dishonorable triumph which he hoped would counterbalance it somewhat. This triumph was that of an expedition against New London, commanded by Arnold. Arnold landed his force at the mouth of the Thames river on September 6th. He divided his force in two columns and marched one column up each side of the river. His own home had been in New London, and he made use of his local knowledge of the town to direct the troops which had been sent to destroy it. Cornwallis, it is said, refused to have him under his command in Virginia, and it was this that caused his diversion northward. The expedition against New London had been proposed by the Commander-in-chief to divert Washington's attention from the South. It was hoped that he might return to the protection of New England. New London was surrounded and burnt. The militia of the neighborhood gathered in Fort Griswold, but they had not nearly force enough to man the parapets. Arnold's men were crazy with liquor. These poured over the earthworks and demanded surrender. Ledyard, the American commander, ordered his men to throw down their arms and surrender to Major Bronfield, who was at the head of the Englishmen. That officer stabbed Ledyard with his own sword as he surrendered it and a general massacre followed in which the whole garrison were killed or wounded. Of these, only three had been killed before Ledyard had given the order to surrender. The dead were stripped of their clothing, and when preparations were made for blowing up the magazine of the fort, the wounded were piled upon a wagon and which, being sent rolling down the steep hill, against a tree, many of the wounded were killed by the shock. Groton, on the other side of the river, was also burnt, though Arnold, it is said, had the humanity to direct that a few of the houses, belonging to old friends, should be spared.

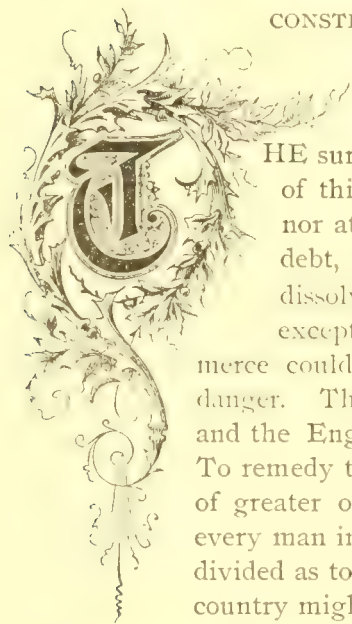
FOR FURTHER READING

- FICTION—J. P. Kennedy, "Horseshoe Robinson."
 J. P. Simms, "The Scout."
 "Catherine Walton."
 "Woodcraft."
 "Foragers."
 "Eutaw."

CHAPTER LXVI.

The Plowshare Versus the Sword.

CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY AT THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTION—
JOHN ADAMS MADE MINISTER TO ENGLAND—THE DISBAND-
ING OF THE ARMY—THE CALL FOR DELEGATES TO
CONSTRUCT A CONSTITUTION.



THE surrender of Cornwallis did not end the troubles of this country. The people were neither at war nor at peace. They were very poor, terribly in debt, with a standing army which they dare not dissolve still on their hands, and no government except that of the Continental Congress. Commerce could not be conducted upon the seas without danger. The fisheries were not yet open to Americans, and the English still held some of the military posts. To remedy these troubles and bring about a condition of greater order and prosperity, was the ambition of every man in America; but from the outset, they were divided as to the means. One party desired that the country might have a general government. The other preferred that each State should have a government of its own, but that for safety, all should be united in a confederation. Thus, for several years after the war, the country was in a state of half peace, which was most unhappy in its effects. Meanwhile the political disagreements of the people strengthened and multiplied. The weakness of the confederation was becoming apparent. Congress had only an advisory power. It could compel no measures and had always to wait for the sanction of the people in everything. It was remarked at the time that it could not even command the money to buy the quills with which the pens for writing the laws were made. It had been necessary for years to run the government and the army upon loans. Franklin, John Adams and the other commissioners in Europe had

talked constantly about the great value of American lands, and thus money was easily secured from European financiers. But the money borrowed was insufficient to meet the demands of the people, and paper currency had been issued. In course of time two hundred million dollars of Continental currency was sent afloat. Congress seemed to think for a time that to make money it needed only to have a printing press which could send out crisp sheets of paper. But this currency fell steadily in value until, in 1779, one hundred paper dollars were worth only two and a half dollars in silver. The last issue of the Continental currency still exist in the large sheets in which they were printed. The man who received the sheet from the public treasury did not think it worth while to cut it into separate bills. The country now needed specie, and this began to be furnished in small quantities by the payment of gold, which the French commissaries paid for the supplies they required for their men. Trade was slowly opening up with Europe again, and every shipment brought a little valuable coin to the impoverished commerce of America. The right to the fisheries of eastern waters and the right to dry fish on the uninhabited lands of the coast were secured to the Americans by John Adams, who obtained it with great persistence.

Scarcely had the war terminated, when each country charged the other with the violation of the treaty of peace. The disputes were so hot that it was decided to hasten the appointment of a minister plenipotentiary to the court of Great Britain. In February, 1785, John Adams was made Ambassador to represent the United States at that court. Meantime, civil war on the northern American frontier had more than once seemed certain. Vermont was determined to preserve her independence, in spite of the claims of New York on the one side, and New Hampshire on the other. She had asked again and again for admission to the Union, but this had been denied her, partly because of the jealousy of her neighbors, and partly for the reason that the Southern States were unwilling to have a Northern State entered without a Southern one to counterbalance it. Vermont had no political existence as a distinct colony of the Crown, at the time that the thirteen other States were created into a confederacy by the agreement of the representatives, and it was now claimed that this was one reason why her prayer should not be granted. The "Green Mountain Boys" felt that if the Union owed nothing to them, they, in turn, owed nothing to the Union. They therefore threatened to offer Great Britain terms of peace and allegiance. Only then did Congress awaken to the danger

which threatened. In the spring of 1781 a force of ten thousand men from Canada threatened an invasion across the northern border. Washington dared not spare a man from his army. The panic everywhere was intense. Letters were written by certain English generals to Ethan Allen, begging the people of Vermont to return to their allegiance to the King, and promising, in the case of her revolt against the United States, she would be made an independent British province. Perhaps the people of Vermont never had any intention of accepting this invitation, and that they only endeavored to mislead their countrymen for the purpose of making them do as they wished, but it is certain that for a time they were considered as very dangerous and treacherous neighbors by the inhabitants of the States. Concessions were made by New York and New Hampshire, and Vermont was given the boundary lines which she herself had drawn, so that when peace was declared Vermont was not a British province. She was not, however, admitted as a State to the Union till 1791.

In these years of turmoil and perplexity one of the things which distressed Washington, and the people in general, was that the English continued to hold New York, Charleston and Savannah. While the enemy was still in the country it was impossible for Washington to disband his army, and the men, without pay and with little to eat or wear, became exceedingly discontented and mischievous. They now knew by experience what they could do by force of arms, and it is little wonder that they plotted among themselves to bring about a state of affairs which would give them increased importance and comfort. Letters were circulated in camp, setting forth the injustice with which the army had been treated, and suggesting that it refuse to disband unless its rightful dues were paid, and that Congress be told that this army continue to exist and would keep its arms. A meeting was called on the 11th of March. The writers and instigators of the letters had an idea that the army would take the position for America which Cromwell's army took for England. The leader of this army might, as Cromwell had done, place himself at the head of the nation. When news of these letters reached Washington, he asked the representatives of the army to meet him for the purpose of talking the matter over. In the meantime, a second letter was written which was even more outspoken than the first. When Washington met the representatives they had profited by reflection, and were prepared to receive in a humble spirit the stern rebuke which Washington gave them. After setting forth the true nature of these letters, exposing all the sophistry in them, and

calling their treasonable intentions by their right names, he begged the army to have confidence in Congress, and promised to do all that he could himself in their behalf. Resolutions were passed which declared that the army viewed with abhorrence and rejected with disdain the suggestions of the letters. Washington's common sense alone saved the country, if not from overthrow, at least from terrible disaster. The many weary months that followed before the soldiers were allowed to return to their homes, were endured with comparative patience. At one time a company of eighty recruits mutinied and took possession of the State House in Philadelphia, but in a short time this insurrection died from its own feebleness.

On November 25, 1782, New York was evacuated by the British, and Washington marched in with his army to take possession. A little less than a month afterwards the Commander-in-chief met his companions in arms at Fraunces Tavern to take leave of them. It would be difficult to imagine a scene of more dignified pathos. For years Washington and many of his officers had been in the closest association. They were more than comrades—they were friends—and the terrible trials which they had undergone together, the great risks which they had run, the difficulties which they had overcome, bound them as no prosperous acquaintanceship could have done. Washington spoke a few broken words of farewell, and the officers dispersed. On the 29th of December he returned his commission to Congress, which was then at Annapolis in public session.

On September 3, 1783, the final treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the United States to be free, sovereign, and independent. At this time Philadelphia was the chief city in the country, having a population of forty thousand. This was three times greater than that of New York and twice as large as that of Boston. New York was still suffering from the effects of the devastation caused by the war. In New England the people were busy with ship-building and coast trading. Throughout the Middle States manufacturing was rapidly increasing. The Southern States were made up of plantations worked by slaves.

Between England and America the balance of trade against this country was greatly increasing. Within two years after peace was declared the value of goods imported from England into the United States was nearly thirty million dollars, while the exports for the same time were only between eight and nine millions. What little good money there was in the United States was thus drawn off to England, for

the young manufactures of America could not, it goes without saying, compete with those of England. In 1783 the debt of the United States was forty-two millions, and that of the separate States, twenty millions. There was no mint, and both Congress and States continued to issue currency. It was in vain that Congress implored the States to provide means for paying their debts. England, with difficulty, collected the debts due her by the Americans, and it looked as if the States, for commercial reasons alone, might be forced to yield their independence and return to a country which would at least provide them with a government and an exchequer. The Congress of Delegates, which had been formed with such haste at the breaking out of the Revolution, and which was composed of men from all parts of the country, was not equal to meeting the present emergencies. Washington himself, who never made a written statement without deep thought and reflection, admitted that Congress was not able to execute the functions of government. John Adams wrote from England that so contemptible was America in the eyes of Great Britain that she was not considered at all in state matters. Thomas Jefferson was Minister to France, and was obliged to exercise all of his ingenuity to keep America and American commerce rightly before the French court. Since the disregard of government was so great in the old States, it is not surprising that on the frontier this was carried to still greater lengths. In the Wyoming country of Pennsylvania there had long been a dispute concerning boundaries and rights which reached a crisis in 1786. The settlers took up arms and declared their intention to form a new State, but they were suppressed as rioters. In the western part of North Carolina a number of counties set up an independent government, calling themselves the State of Franklin, but this soon came to an end through internal troubles. In several different places efforts were made by armed mobs to prevent the sitting of courts and legislatures, but like most mobs, these were dissolved with comparatively little trouble. About this time Alexander Hamilton proposed that a national convention meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787, for the purpose of providing a new constitution which should give strength to the Federal Government. Addresses were sent to the legislatures asking them to send delegates to this convention. In Congress, the party which objected to the consolidation of power was the stronger, and this only consented to the convention on the condition that it confine itself to revising the articles of confederation.

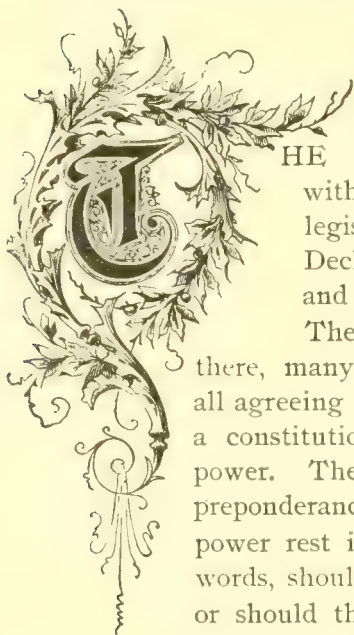
FOR FURTHER READING.

FICTION—J. E. Cooke's "The Youth of Jefferson." "Rose Hill."
J. P. Kennedy's "Swallow Barn."

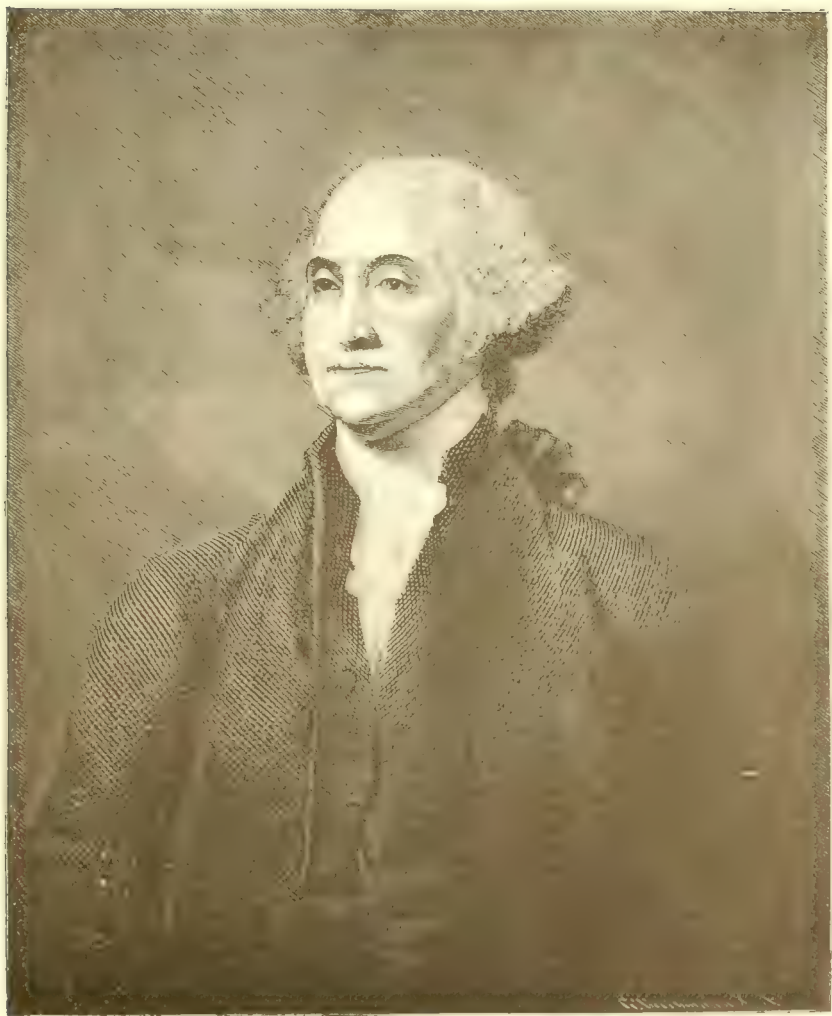
CHAPTER LXVII.

“First in War, First in Peace.”

THE FORMING OF THE CONSTITUTION—WASHINGTON ELECTED
PRESIDENT.



THE convention met at the time appointed, with George Washington in the chair. The legislative chamber was the same in which the Declaration of Independence had been signed, and many of the signers were then present. The most influential men of the States were there, many of them differing bitterly in opinion, but all agreeing in their desire to give to the United States a constitution which should add to its dignity and power. The greatest cause of dispute was about the preponderance of power. The question was: Should power rest in the people, or in Congress? In other words, should the general government coerce the States, or should the States be sovereign to themselves? The promise that the convention was only to revise the articles of confederation as Congress desired was, of course, brought to notice. Various plans were laid before the House by Alexander Hamilton, and other leaders of public thought. All of these were considered in turn. Randolph, of Virginia, and Patterson, of New Jersey, had plans of government which were long debated upon. But so angry and hopeless did the debates become, that even the calmest and most judicious despaired of reaching any results. Benjamin Franklin, an old man now, was present, and in the midst of these difficulties and misunderstandings he arose and made this speech: “It is to be feared that the members of this convention are not in temper, at this moment, to approach the subject on which we differ, in a candid spirit. I would, therefore, propose, Mr. President, that, without proceeding further in this business at this time, the convention shall



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

After painting by T. H. M. of Charles Street and Engraving by J. G. M. — A. 10. — B.

adjourn for three days, in order to let the present ferment pass off, and to afford time for a more full, free and dispassionate investigation of the subject; and I would earnestly recommend to the members of this convention that they spend the time of this recess, not in associating with their own party and devising new arguments to fortify themselves in their old opinions, but that they mix with members of opposite sentiments, lend a patient ear to their reasonings, and candidly allow them all the weight to which they may be entitled; and when we assemble again I hope it will be with a determination to form a Constitution, if not such a one as we can individually and in all respects approve, yet the best which, under existing circumstances, can be obtained. Before I sit down, Mr. President, I will suggest another matter, and I am really surprised that it has not been proposed by some other member at an earlier period of our deliberations. I will suggest, Mr. President, the propriety of nominating and appointing, before we separate, a chaplain to this convention, whose duty it shall be uniformly to assemble with us and introduce the business of each day by imploring the assistance of Heaven, and asking Its blessing upon our deliberations." The three days were spent in the manner which Dr. Franklin advised, and, on reassembling, the chaplain who had been appointed appeared and led the devotions of the assembly. Dr. Franklin addressed the house first, as everyone expected and desired that he should do. His wisdom, experience, common sense and deep-seated calmness gave a placidity to the convention which it had not had before. With more earnest intentions the convention renewed its work. The Constitution was finally amended. It prescribed that the laws of the United States were, thenceforth, to be administered, not by a confederacy or mere league of friendship between the sovereign States, but by a government distributed into three great departments—legislative, judicial and executive; that the powers of government should be limited to concerns pertaining to the whole people, leaving the internal administration of each State in time of peace to its own constitutional laws, provided, that they should be republican, and interfering with them as little as possible in case of war; that the legislative power of this government should be divided between the two assemblies, one representing directly the people of the separate States, and the other their legislatures; that the executive power of this government should be vested in one person, chosen for four years, with certain qualifications of age and nativity, and invested with a qualified negative upon the enactments of the laws; and that the judicial power

should consist of tribunals, inferior and supreme, to be instituted and organized by Congress, the judges removable only by impeachment. Washington signed the Constitution first, remarking solemnly as he did so: "Should the States reject this excellent Constitution, the probability is that an opportunity will never again be offered to cancel another in peace; the next will be drawn in blood." With three exceptions the Constitution was signed by all the delegates present. The convention, however, which framed the Constitution, was not clothed with legislative power, and the Constitution was, therefore, referred to the several States. In the summer of 1788, nine of the States ratified it. Rhode Island was the last of the thirteen original States to accept the Constitution, which she did in May, 1790. The year of suspense was full of internal troubles. In New York, the brilliant young Alexander Hamilton led the Federal party with dramatic fervor, and when his triumph was made apparent by the ratification of the Constitution, a great festival was held in New York City. There was a procession of traders, merchants, artisans and professional men, who bore aloft on their banners the names of Washington and Hamilton, and a frigate fully manned, called the Federal ship "Hamilton," was borne on wheels through the streets, her cannons replying to the salutes with which she was greeted.

The first Congress met in New York on March 4, 1789. When the votes of the Presidential electors were counted, the first choice was unanimous for Washington. John Adams received the largest number of votes for Vice-President. A special messenger was sent by the president of the Senate to notify Washington of his election. This great man was living quietly at his princely home of Mount Vernon. His home life was very dear to him, and it was with the most painful reluctance that he took upon himself once more the burdens of the nation. As Washington traveled from his home in Virginia to New York, which was now the seat of government, he received enthusiastic greetings everywhere. At Trenton, where he had fought with such brilliancy, a triumphal arch was thrown across the bridge which he was to cross. The arch was supported on thirteen pillars, which were wreathed with flowers and bore inscriptions which must have been deeply gratifying to him. Beneath this arch stood a party of young girls with baskets of flowers in their hands, and they greeted Washington with a song which had been composed for the occasion, strewing flowers before him as they sang. As he neared New York a delegation was sent to meet him. A barge, with a crew of thirteen to represent the

colonies, was for his special use, and following this, with flying flags, came many other boats. The Governor of the State and many other distinguished persons awaited Washington at the wharf and escorted him to his quarters, Washington preferring to walk up the crowded streets that he might seem to enter the city in humbleness and good fellowship. A few days later the ceremony of inauguration took place in the balcony of what was then the Senate chamber. This was called Federal Hall, and it stood at the meeting of four streets, which were crowded to suffocation with people. Washington came on the balcony, and the Chancellor of New York read the inaugural oath to him. After the oath was administered, the people cried, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" But this was a reminder of kingly customs which was never repeated for any other President. Flags were raised, cannons were fired and bells were rung, launching in with joyful burst of song the new Republic, with a magistrate at its head who, for wisdom, disinterestedness and pure patriotism, has never been equaled by any following President save one. This was April 30, 1789.

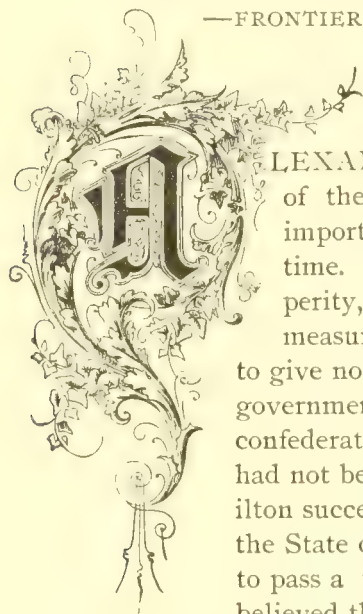
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Curtis' 'History of the Constitution.'
 Frothingham's 'Rise of the Republic.'
 FICTION—N. M. Curtis' 'Doom of the Tory Guard.'

CHAPTER LXVIII.

Starling the Wheels of Progress.

HAMILTON'S POLICY AS THE FIRST SECRETARY OF STATE—INCREASE
OF AMERICAN COMMERCE—THE QUESTION OF SLAVERY
—FRONTIER TROUBLES AT THE WEST.



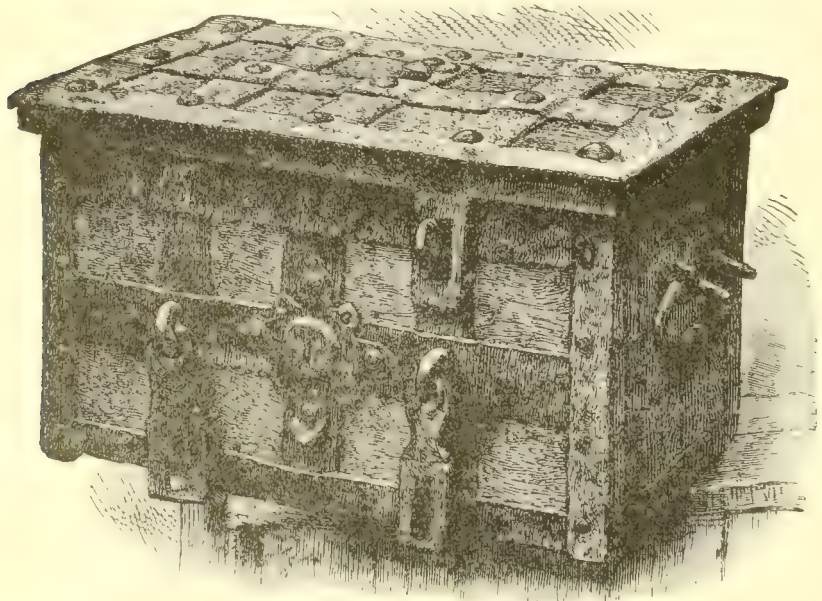
ALEXANDER HAMILTON was made Secretary of the Treasury, an office hardly second in importance to that of the President itself at this time. If the nation was to be restored to prosperity, it rested upon him to devise efficient measures. Hamilton's policy from the first was to give notice to the Old World that the new Federal government assumed all the obligations of the old confederation, and provided, as that enfeebled body had not been able to do, for their discharge. Hamilton succeeded in getting the government to assume the State debts. One of the first acts of Congress was to pass a tariff bill, for Hamilton and many others believed that protection was the only system possible in that stage of national life and in the condition of the civilized world. A national bank was started which was under private direction, and yet served the government by making it owner of one-fifth of the capital stock of ten million dollars and the preferred borrower to the same amount. A hundred minor matters were attended to by the Secretary with equal care. The sale of public lands increased, regulations were made for the coast trade, navigation laws enacted, revenue cutters established, light-houses built, and numerous plans were formed for the sustaining of law and good order. A bill was passed imposing a duty on imported domestic spirits, for the purpose of swelling the revenue. American enterprise soon felt the benefit of these measures. In 1787 the French government issued a decree placing American citizens on the same commercial footing as Frenchmen, and

admitting American produce free of duty. As France had a free trade treaty with England, this act had much to do with the ceasing of commercial hostilities between America and England. When war broke out between France and England, the carrying trade of the world fell into the hands of the United States. The trade with the West Indies became almost wholly American, for French ships could not go there. Spanish trade was carried on under a neutral flag and English merchants found it safer to use American vessels. Great commercial houses came into existence. The trade with China and East India became a source of wealth, and the seamen of America were counted remarkable for their enterprise and courage.

The question of slavery was one of the most important with which the Federal Congress interested itself. It was held that Congress had no power over slavery in the States, but that it had power in the territories. By the ordinance of 1787, all the territory northwest of the Ohio then belonging to the United States, and comprising what is now the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, was to be the home of free labor forever. Slaves had become especially valuable in the South by the growth of the cotton industry. In 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin. America has been the home of many great inventions, but none of them have been of greater importance than this to the Republic. It was the first key which was applied to the unlocking of the natural capabilities of this land. Whitney was the son of a Massachusetts farmer. He chanced to visit Georgia and saw there the great difficulty with which the seed was separated from the cotton. After a few months of hard study he invented a successful machine which in one day, by the labor of a single hand, could do more than was usually performed in many months by the old method. Whitney afterward made a fortune by the invention of fire-arms. The slave was thought to be a necessary part of the cotton trade, and therefore assumed an importance in American affairs which it had never before held. It is very interesting to note how good and bad tendencies seemed to conflict with each other at this period of national history. At this very time an impetus was given to public educational matters which they had never received before. Education for all was a part of the free government. Noah Webster began the publication of his school books and gave his life up to the establishment of a national literature. In these matters the young States led, rather than followed, the older ones. Civilization spread westward and marked its progress by a series of triumphs over the savages and the soil. John C. Symmes

obtained a grant of one million acres, bounded on the south by the Ohio, and on the west by the Miami, and here, in 1788-9, South Bend and Cincinnati were settled.

The English still retained some of the frontier posts, and about these the Indians continually flocked. They were persuaded by the English that the Americans had no claim to any territory beyond the Ohio, and in truth every State westward had been an encroachment upon Indian territory. Indian warfare upon the settlers, therefore, took on its worst form here. At no time were the settlers safe. The man who left his home in the morning never knew whether he should



WASHINGTON'S TREASURE CHEST (From a photograph.)

return alive to it or not, and would have felt no surprise if on returning he should find his wife and children dead in his cabin. Several villages were plundered and burned, and every train of emigrants was sure to encounter danger, if not death. On the Ohio and other rivers many tragic scenes were enacted. The Indians would watch for a passing boat, murder the passengers, and let the boat-load of corpses drift with the flow of the stream to the settlements below. In seven years fifteen hundred persons were killed or captured by the Indians on the Ohio, and twenty thousand horses were stolen. It was in vain that the Americans sued for a treaty of peace. War was forced upon them—a

war which ended in disaster the most serious ever sustained by an American army in its battles with the Indians.

In the month of September, 1790, General Harmar was intrusted with the duty of subduing the fierce tribes on the Miami and Wabash. The general had with him a body of three hundred and twenty regulars, who, being reinforced by the militia of Pennsylvania and Kentucky, formed a corps of four hundred and fifty-three men. Upon his approach the Indians set fire to their villages, but they could not be brought to an engagement. At length the Americans were unexpectedly attacked and severely disabled. After this humiliation to the United States, Congress, in the following year, 1791, strengthened the national military force and placed in the hands of President Washington larger means for the protection of the frontier. General St. Clair, then Governor of the territory west of the Ohio, was appointed commander of a large force. When Washington parted from him he impressed upon him again and again the danger of a surprise. "You know how Indians fight," said he; "I repeat it, beware of a surprise." St. Clair went out into the wilderness with these words ringing in his ears, but on the 4th of November, while the regulars were encamped on one of the tributaries of the Wabash and the militia were resting upon a high flat on the other side of the stream, they met with that disaster which Washington had especially warned them against. The Indians rushed upon them at a most unexpected moment, taking advantage of a division of the army. Nearly half of St. Clair's force were slaughtered and he beat a headlong retreat. His militia had proved useless, and even his regulars had been panic-stricken. The Indians, as usual, fought from cover, and against them the fire of the Americans, aimed at random into a dusky forest, could have little effect. The pursuit was kept up about four miles, when, fortunately for the Americans who still survived, their foes could no longer restrain their eagerness for plunder, and returned to rifle the bodies of the dead soldiers. For thirty miles the terrified Americans continued their panic-stricken flight, throwing away their arms as they went. They left their wounded at Fort Jefferson and retreated to Fort Washington, at Cincinnati. Washington learned of the disaster with rage and agony. Never since the interview at the battle of Monmouth did he so give way to that terrible wrath of which he was capable. Thirty-eight officers and six hundred privates were killed or missing, and twenty-one officers and two hundred and forty-two privates wounded. Among the camp-followers were two hundred and fifty women, most of whom were killed or captured.

No time was lost in sending out another expedition. The indignation of the people had been roused to the highest pitch. It was said that during the fight several British officers were seen upon the field with the Indians, who had come down from Detroit to urge on their savage allies. The man sent out to take St. Clair's place was General Anthony Wayne. His courage was reckless, and gained for him the name of "Mad Anthony," which he was called by his soldiers more in love than criticism. Washington himself carefully instructed Wayne in his mode of warfare. Nearly two years passed before Wayne had gathered his four thousand men and built the line of forts necessary to success. He followed Washington's directions implicitly during all this time. He never permitted his army to be divided, and marched with open files that a line might be quickly formed in the thick woods. It was his habit to halt early in the afternoon, that the camp might be surrounded by a rampart of logs before nightfall. His cavalry laid waste the country for many miles on each side of the line of march. When he had four good forts behind him to offer protection in case of retreat, he decided to attack. The Indians had consented to an engagement, and on the morning of August 20th the two forces met on the banks of the Maumee river. The action was short and decisive. The cavalry attacked the flanks of the Indian line and the infantry charged with the bayonet upon the centre, and as soon as they caused a retreat, poured a volley of musket balls into their foes. The Indians were pursued until within reach of the guns of the British fort. Here the Americans encamped for a few days, destroying all the property in the neighborhood. Wayne's loss was comparatively small, and for a time the Indians were effectually subdued. A treaty was made with them in 1795, by which they ceded a large tract of land to the United States, and from that time the more rapid settlement of the West began.

FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Flint's "Indian Wars of the West."

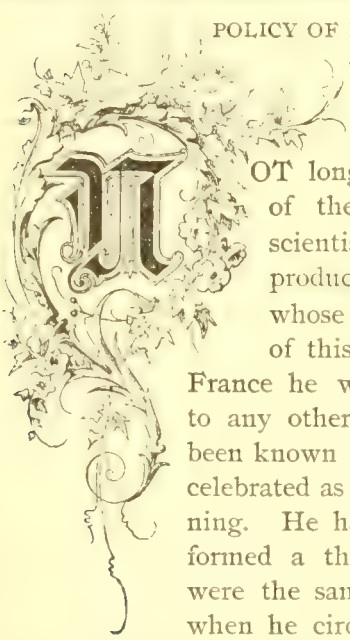
FICTION—Galt's "Lawrie Todd."

Bird's "Nick of the Woods."

CHAPTER LXIX.

The Courthly Times of Washington.

DEATH OF FRANKLIN—THE HUMOR OF WASHINGTON'S TIME—THE
POLICY OF HAMILTON—THE PENNSYLVANIA
WHISKY RIOTS.



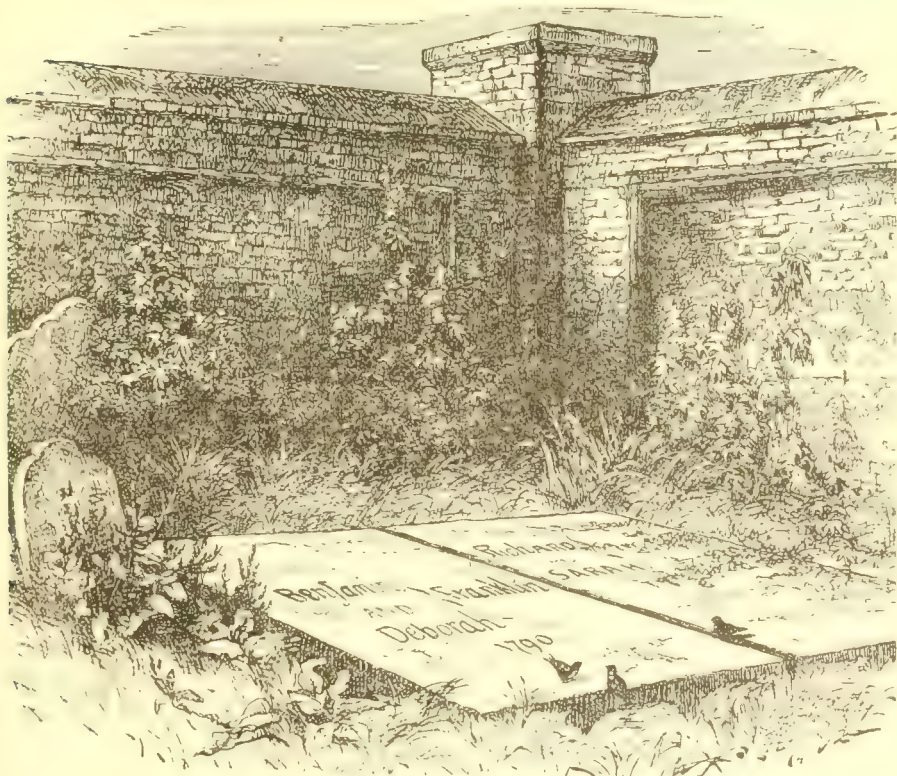
NOT long after Washington became President, one of the greatest of Americans died—the first scientist, perhaps, which this country had ever produced. This was Dr. Benjamin Franklin, whose early life has been told of in another part of this history. In the courts of England and of France he won a consideration which was not paid to any other envoy from the young nation. Had he been known for no other reason, he would have been celebrated as the discoverer of the electric fluid in lightning. He had long been a student of electricity, and formed a theory that lightning and the electric fluid were the same thing. He was very much laughed at when he circulated this idea, in a little pamphlet, and

he made up his mind to prove it to the satisfaction of everyone. He and his young son together made a great kite of a silk handkerchief, and fastening a piece of sharpened wire to the stick, went out to fly the kite in a thunder-storm. As a low thunder-cloud passed, the electric fluid went down the string of the kite and when Franklin touched the key that he had fastened to the string, his knuckles drew sparks from it, showing that the electricity was there. In a short time he invented the lightning rod.

In all public matters he had great influence, and he founded more good institutions and benevolent enterprises than any American of his time. The last public act which he performed was to sign a memorial to Congress, in behalf of the Philadelphia Anti-Slavery Society, asking the abolition of slavery. He lived to be eighty-four, and died on April 17, 1790. Throughout the States the mourning was universal, and

in France the Assembly went into mourning for him three days. At this time the customs and habits of the people of this republic were very different from those of the present day. It was a ceremonious age—an age of display—and the traditions of royal splendor still clung, in a degree, about the capital of the republic. President Washington was a man of great wealth, and one who believed that there should be distinctions in men, and that honor should be paid to those who deserved it. He desired, for instance, that the official name of the President should be "High Mightiness," which were the words employed in describing the Stadtholder of Holland, which at that time was a republic. But this title was objected to, and Excellency was substituted. Washington's levees were very stately entertainments, and differed exceedingly from the free and easy receptions which are at present held at the White House. Once in two weeks at precisely three in the afternoon, the doors of the great dining-room were thrown open. By the fire-place stood President Washington, with members of his Cabinet and other distinguished gentlemen about him. His usual dress was a black velvet coat, with white or pearl-colored waistcoat, yellow gloves, and silver knee buckles and shoe buckles. His hair was powdered and gathered in a silk bag behind. In his hand he carried a cocked hat, and wore a long sword, with a scabbard of polished white leather. The habit of shaking hands would have been considered too familiar at that time, and Washington greeted each of his guests with a courteous bow. Mrs. Washington gave brilliant evening levees, which it was considered a great privilege to attend. Dinners and public meetings were held in all the large towns of the nation on the birthday of the President, and the local poets were expected to address odes to Washington. When Washington drove to the sessions of Congress, he went in a state coach, the body of which was in the shape of a hemisphere, cream-colored, bordered with flowers around the panels, which were ornamented with figures representing cupids, and supporting festoons. On great occasions the coach was drawn by six horses, on ordinary occasions by four, and on Sundays by two only. The driver and postillions wore liveries of white and scarlet. This display and formality upon the part of the President influenced the whole nation. It was, indeed, but the continuation of the state in which the Governors had lived. The forms of politeness were very elaborate, and the people devoted much attention and money to their dress. In Connecticut and Massachusetts there were still sumptuary laws against extravagance, but at this time they were not enforced. Even the

clergymen wore wigs, with gowns and bands, in the pulpit, and cocked hats on the streets. The Judges of the Supreme Court, in winter, wore robes of scarlet faced with velvet, and in summer, very full black silk robes. It is still their practice to wear the latter sort. The ladies dressed their hair with powder and pomatum, and built it to such a great height above the head that it became necessary to have carriages of greater height made than those which had previously been used. At this time Sedan chairs were used as well as carriages, and in these



FRANKLIN'S GRAVE, PHILADELPHIA

the grand dames were carried from place to place by two servants in dashing liveries. The ladies themselves were gorgeous in rustling brocades, powder, patches and jewels. These patches, which were of black silk, were pasted upon the face, and were cut in a great variety of fantastic shapes. There were crescents, stars, anchors and even elephants, and a belle would sometimes decorate herself with at least twenty of these. Gentlemen dressed as brilliantly as the ladies, and in

the same sort of fabrics. If a gentleman went abroad, he appeared in his wig, white stock, white satin embroidered vest, black satin small clothes with white silk stockings and fine broadcloth or velvet coat. If at home, a velvet cap, sometimes with a fine linen one under it, took the place of a wig, while a gown, frequently a colored damask lined with silk, was substituted for the coat, and the feet were covered with leather slippers of some fancy color. No gentleman's costume was complete without a snuff-box, and on these little trifles the greatest art was expended. A salutation between friends was immediately followed by an offer of snuff, and a man who did not take it laid himself open to the charge of being discourteous.

The nation still felt the influence of Puritan prejudices, and was only beginning to tolerate the theatre, which at one time had been considered by the stern citizens of Massachusetts as one of the worst beguilements of Satan. Massachusetts is spoken of, because in religious and philosophic matters she was the leader. Private theatricals, which Washington and other fashionable people occasionally had at their houses, gradually paved the way for public entertainments. Musical concerts were allowed at this time, which, in itself, marked quite a growth in public taste and liberality, for at one time they would have been considered the height of frivolity. Balls were popular, and some of them were given on a very large scale. The French Ambassador gave one in Philadelphia which was so large that a building was erected on purpose for the entertainment. It is said that on fete days the hair-dressers were kept so busy that ladies had to employ their services at 4 or 5 o'clock in the morning, and to sit upright all day to keep from disturbing the head-dress.

It was thought that when the army was disbanded the country would be filled with beggars, for it could hardly be expected that men who had been kept without other occupation than that of arms for eight years, would easily adapt themselves to ways of industry again. But they went back to their workshops and farms, and places were found for them by a people who, although they were capricious, were certainly not ungrateful. At that time the working people did not, as now, depend upon great monopolies for support. Cloth was spun in almost every house; tallow candles made in every kitchen. Wood was to be had almost for the chopping, and neighbors exchanged the produce of their farms and gardens.

Secretary Hamilton was doing all in his power to restore the commercial confidence of the people and place the government on a

sure financial basis. In trying to do this, he took some measures which were very distasteful to the people. A bill drawn up by him was passed in Congress in March, 1791, which increased the duty on imported spirits, making it from twenty to forty cents a gallon, and what was still more offensive to the people, laid a tax on distillation. The people of various States, held meetings, appointed committees, and adopted resolutions asking for an unconditional repeal. Those who accepted the offices of collectors were treated with every sort of indignity. Some of them were tarred and feathered, their houses were burned, and they were ostracized, although many of them were men of high business and social standing. The insurrection gathered rapidly and finally organized for resistance to the law. Under the leadership of John Holcraft, known more widely as "Tom the Tinker," the mob attacked several houses in Pennsylvania. The handful of militia was forced to surrender to them, and the mob burned several houses belonging to the law-and-order party. A few days later the mail to Philadelphia was stopped and the insurgents took from it several letters which gave accounts of the riot. The writers of these letters were severely persecuted. The insurgents next summoned the militia to meet on Braddock's Field, August 1, 1794. Seven thousand came armed and provisioned for four days, but when they were told to capture Fort Pitt, they dispersed.

President Washington was alarmed, and fearing that the rebellion might spread through the country, called on New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia for fifteen thousand men, and sent commissioners to the scene of the disturbance, with power to arrange for peaceful submission any time before September 14th. As these commissioners soon returned without having come to any satisfactory arrangement, the troops were put in motion with the Governors of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Virginia at the heads of their men, under the leadership of General Henry Lee. Most of the disturbances were in the counties west of the Alleghanies, and the soldiers were obliged to cross these mountains, suffering not a little from disease and exposure as they did so. The insurrection died quickly upon the appearance of the troops. Some of the leaders left the country and some were arrested and brought to trial. Only two were convicted of treason, and these were pardoned by the President.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—Charlotte Walsingham's "Annette"
H. H. Brackentridges "Modern Chivalry."

CHAPTER LXX.

A Democracy.

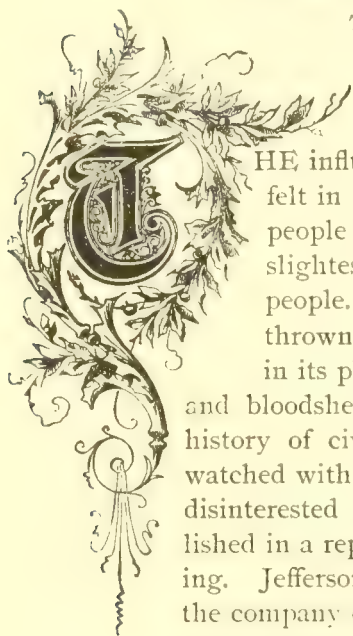
THE POLITICAL PARTIES OF THE YOUNG NATION—THE JAY TREATY—

ELECTION OF JOHN ADAMS TO THE PRESIDENCY—

ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS—

TROUBLE WITH

FRANCE.



THE influence of the French rebellion was strongly felt in America, and the discontented among the people showed a willingness to imitate, upon the slightest provocation, the example of the French people. The old French monarchy had been overthrown, and an attempt made to establish a republic in its place—an attempt which had led to violence and bloodshed which had never been equaled in the history of civilized nations. This struggle Americans watched with much interest. They were not free from a disinterested desire to see their great ally firmly established in a republic such as they themselves were founding. Jefferson had long been in Paris, and was among the company of brilliant fanatics whose heads were afterwards sacrificed to the relentless commune. Of all of them, he was the only one whose dream of power was finally realized, and who, in later years, stood at the head of a nation. The party in America which sympathized with the French and had democratic simplicity for their watchword, were inclined to quarrel with what was considered the ostentation of President Washington, as well as with the vigorous legislative measures of Secretary Hamilton. The men of this party first called themselves Republicans, and afterwards Democrats. Samuel Adams, as well as Jefferson, belonged to this party. The party on the other side were known as Federalists, and desired that the States should all be governed by one central government, and that to an extent the judicial and executive laws of England should be imitated. Wash-

ington, Hamilton and John Adams were among the foremost Federalists. Questions of international commerce were of the greatest political interest at the time, and the Federalists associated themselves with protection, while Jefferson and his friends headed the free trade movement. From time to time different influences were brought to bear upon each of these parties, and cliques or bands of partisans came up which held individual views of some of the questions of the day. The Democrats were especially fearful that the national government would become too powerful and destroy the rights of the States. They feared that it might grow aristocratic and exclusive, as in European nations.

As early as 1791 a minister had been sent from England. He made laws concerning the capture of French merchant vessels, which created the strongest indignation among the Democrats. No minister arrived in America from France until 1793, and the man sent was Edmund Charles Genet, who was received with great enthusiasm by the French party in the United States, because he was one of the "Liberators" who had beheaded Louis XVI. He was intoxicated with the wild notions of the French revolution, and had not the common sense to perceive how different was the government which he was now sent to confer with. He quarreled with the laws, threatened to head an uprising of the people, and at last became so intolerable that the Americans were obliged to request that he should be recalled.

The British continued to wage war upon the French vessels, and issued an order directing cruisers to make a prize of any vessel carrying the produce of a French colony or transporting supplies to such colony. This, of course, was a serious interference with America as well as France, and Congress decided to stop all commercial intercourse with Great Britain till the western posts still held by the British were surrendered. Washington was anxious to avert war and in 1794 sent an envoy extraordinary to London to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. Chief Justice John Jay was the man selected for this enterprise. The minister for foreign affairs in England met Jay half way, and in a short time a treaty was agreed upon, which went into operation in February, 1796. The withdrawal of British troops and garrisons from the western posts was agreed upon, as well as free inland navigation and trade to both nations upon lakes and rivers, except that the United States were excluded from the domain of the Hudson Bay Company. There were many other particulars relating to trade by water which need not be mentioned. Great Britain was to pay for losses by her irregular captures by British cruisers. Citizens of either country were

permitted to hold landed property in the territory of the other, and no private property was to be confiscated in case of war. Ships of war were to be received in each other's ports. Citizens of either in the other's territory were not to be molested, and criminals escaping from one country to the other were to be delivered up. When this treaty and all of its particulars were known about in America, it aroused the warmest controversy. The President and most of his Cabinet were fairly well pleased with it, but the Democrats were so incensed against it that they proposed to nullify the law by withholding the necessary appropriations to carry out the terms of the treaty. Their particular argument was that it benefited England at the expense of France, and that it was for the benefit of northern trade, and failed to provide for the loss of slaves who fled with the British armies at the close of the Revolution. The needed appropriations were obtained only after fierce debates, only four votes from States south of the Potomac being given in its favor. The South was ambitious for ascendancy, and already the breach between the two sections became noticeable.

Washington's second administration was coming to an end. During the eight years of his government the nation had gained more confidence in herself and had increased greatly in size. In 1792, Kentucky had come into the union. This region was at first, as has been said before, considered a part of Virginia. The Spanish government had, at one time, endeavored to induce the Kentuckians to declare themselves independent of the Union, and to join Louisiana, which still belonged to Spain, but these efforts failed. In 1796, Tennessee became a State. This part of the country had been explored much earlier than Kentucky, and, indeed, may have been visited by De Soto, long before the settlement of the Eastern States. It was, however, settled much more slowly than Kentucky, and the settlers came chiefly from North Carolina. It was here that the attempt to establish the State of Franklin was tried. This failed, after two or three years of unhealthy existence. Being so near North Carolina, Kentucky could hardly fail to be a slave State.

At the end of Washington's Administration there were sixteen States in the Union. The first census of the nation, which was taken in 1790, showed a population of about four millions. Washington refused a third election to the presidency. John Adams, of Massachusetts, who had been Vice-President, was chosen by a small majority over Thomas Jefferson, who, as it will be remembered, belonged to the Democratic party. In those days the candidate who received the second number of votes in

the presidential election was made Vice-President, and thus Thomas Jefferson was given that position, although he and the chief executive differed so widely in politics. From the breaking out of the Revolution, President Adams had been one of the most unselfish of the patriots. He had assisted in framing the Declaration of Independence, and had been one of the Ambassadors to make the treaty with France at the close of the war. But notwithstanding these services he was elected against the protest of a large part of the nation. Never since has any election been conducted with such bitterness of spirit and such public revilement. The volcanic government of France had thrown into this country many burning brands. The young "philosophers," as they termed themselves, could not, and would not, understand the principles of this government. They were accomplished in vituperative rhetoric, and astonished the moderate-speaking Americans with all sorts of wild speeches, which were mistaken for eloquence. So troublesome did they become that on June 18, 1798, were passed what were known as the alien and sedition laws. By these, naturalization was restricted and the President was permitted to send out of the country such aliens as he thought dangerous to the United States. He was permitted to give license to aliens to remain during his pleasure, and, if he wished, to exact bonds for their good behavior. Aliens who had no license might be imprisoned, and masters of vessels who brought them might be fined for not reporting their arrival. The sedition law made five offences penal. These were: "Defaming Congress or the President;" "exciting the hatred of the people against them;" "stirring up sedition in the United States;" "raising unlawful combinations for resisting laws," and "aiding foreign nations against the United States." A wild storm of dissent greeted these acts, which, indeed, were hardly in keeping with the sentiments which America had always voiced, calling herself the asylum for the oppressed of all nations. In the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky it was declared that Congress had acted beyond its constitutional powers; that the States were not bound to obey, and that each State had the right to determine the question of constitutionality. With these resolutions, which Vice-President Jefferson sanctioned, the Democratic party strengthened its power. The Democratic party urged that these laws were such an insult to France, which had many distinguished citizens in America, that she could well be excused for the diplomatic measures which she took to annoy America. At one time nearly one thousand American vessels were detained or captured by the French government, and when the American

government sent an envoy to France, the Directory ordered him to quit the country. The English cruisers were also exceedingly annoying, and the commanders had no hesitancy in searching for English seamen on board of American vessels, under which pretext they frequently kidnaped American seamen.

Adams was constantly hampered by the peace policy of Jefferson, who did not believe that war was right in the new brotherhood which had grown out of the French commune. But Adams had determination enough to insist that another commission should be sent to France. When this commission reached that country they were told that they would be received by the Directory if they chose to make a handsome loan to the French Republic. When the envoys refused to accept such humiliating terms, they were ordered out of the country. Congress determined to take a hostile attitude, and ordered the standing army to be enlarged by twelve regiments. A navy of twenty-four vessels was ordered, and merchantmen were allowed to arm themselves against the French vessels of war. In theory, the two nations were at war, but there were no engagements between them except among the cruisers. Two serious conflicts took place in the West Indies. A heavy French privateer and a French frigate were captured and sent into port as prizes. But at this time Napoleon came into power, and everything was changed. He received a new embassy sent out by Adams with great cordiality. The French cruisers were told to leave American vessels alone, and America changed her aspect to one of friendship. The Federalists, who were for war, were thoroughly dissatisfied with peaceable measures. The President tried in vain to take a middle course which should please both parties, and succeeded in pleasing neither of them. The unpopular sedition law was one of the things most talked of in the election of 1800, by which the administration of the government fell into the hands of the Democrats, to remain there for a quarter of a century. But in the meantime, there had been several occurrences of national interest outside of this.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—"Life of John Jay."

HISTORY—Carlyle's "French Revolution."

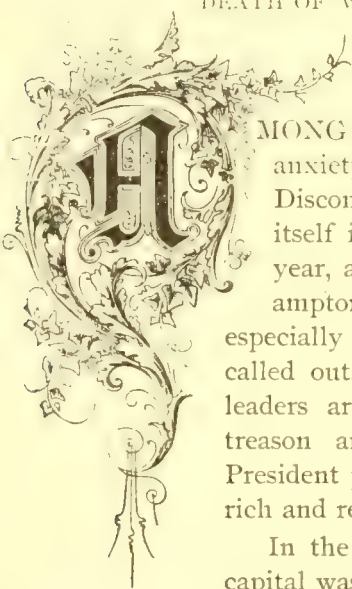
CHAPTER LXXI.

A Modern Lucifer.

THE FRIES INSURRECTION—SELECTION OF THE NATIONAL CAPITAL—

DEATH OF WASHINGTON—LOUISIANA—

AARON BURR.



AMONG the things which awakened national anxiety was the Fries insurrection of 1799. Discontent with the window tax began to show itself in 1798, and, in the spring of the following year, a rebellion against it broke out in Northampton county, Pennsylvania. It spread rapidly, especially among the Germans. The militia was called out, the insurgents soon subdued, and their leaders arrested. John Fries was tried for high treason and found guilty after two trials, but the President pardoned him. Fries afterwards became a rich and respectable citizen of Philadelphia.

In the same year, 1799, the site of the national capital was decided upon. Some of the members of Congress were very anxious that the place should be New York. This the southern members fiercely opposed, and threatened, as they always did when in any way annoyed, to secede from the Union. There was some thought of placing the national government at Philadelphia for ten years, but a desire among many of the members that a permanent site should be selected, hindered the carrying out of this plan. At last it was agreed, "that a district of territory on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouths of the eastern branch and Connogochague, be, and at the same time is, hereby accepted for the permanent site of the government of the United States." To this city was given the name of Washington. The plan of the city was laid out by Washington himself, and the present stately city shows how excellent these plans were. But it was desolate enough when John Adams took his wife to the White House, and placed her in charge of that mansion.

which in those days was considered by many as far too elaborate an edifice for a republican president to live in. The long, unimproved avenues, up which few people went, the deep morasses and thick groves, were dreary surroundings for the nation's capital and the residence of its President. Mrs. Adams complained that so few people lived round about that they could not even get fire-wood drawn for their comfort. The malaria which arose from the swamps was dangerous indeed, and the expense of keeping up such a huge building was entirely out of proportion to the President's salary. But these inconveniences were, of course, soon remedied. There is no question but that the site is a beautiful one for a large city. A level plain, three miles in length and two miles wide, extended from the banks of the Potomac to a range of hills bounding the plain on the east. The hill on which the Capitol stands has a noble view. This is the centre of the city, and the avenues radiate from it, thus making the city the shape of an amphitheatre. The institutions of government, art, science and education stand at great distances from each other, and have given to the city its name of "The City of Magnificent Distances."

Before the year 1799 had closed, George Washington was dead. The party bitterness which had called down so many criticisms upon him vanished suddenly out of sight. The nation recognized how much it owed to his wisdom, uprightness, unselfishness and honest pride. Congress declared what has since passed into a proverb, that he was "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," and Europe recognized the fact that one of the three great men of the age had died. These three were Napoleon, Wellington and Washington, and of them, Washington can safely be said to be the most disinterested.

When Thomas Jefferson followed Adams as President of the United States, in 1801, his way was made comparatively easy for him, by the fact that Napoleon was now at the head of the French nation. The confused and complicated foreign conditions were altered. Especially did this affect the West, where there had been a continual distrust between the Americans and the Spaniards in Louisiana. Upon three different occasions the western men had been upon the point of war, by the authority and with the sanction of the President. One of the chief causes of the quarrels was, that the Spanish commanders at New Orleans refused to let the men from the territories unload any of their exports at the New Orleans wharves. To end these troubles, Jefferson sent Robert Livingstone to Paris, with a proposal to purchase the island on which New Orleans stands, and the right of passage to the

sea. The original territory of Louisiana, be it understood, as a French province, comprised the valleys of the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Missouri and the Illinois. At the close of the French war, in 1763, France ceded to Great Britain all that portion of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi and north of the Iberville, about a hundred miles



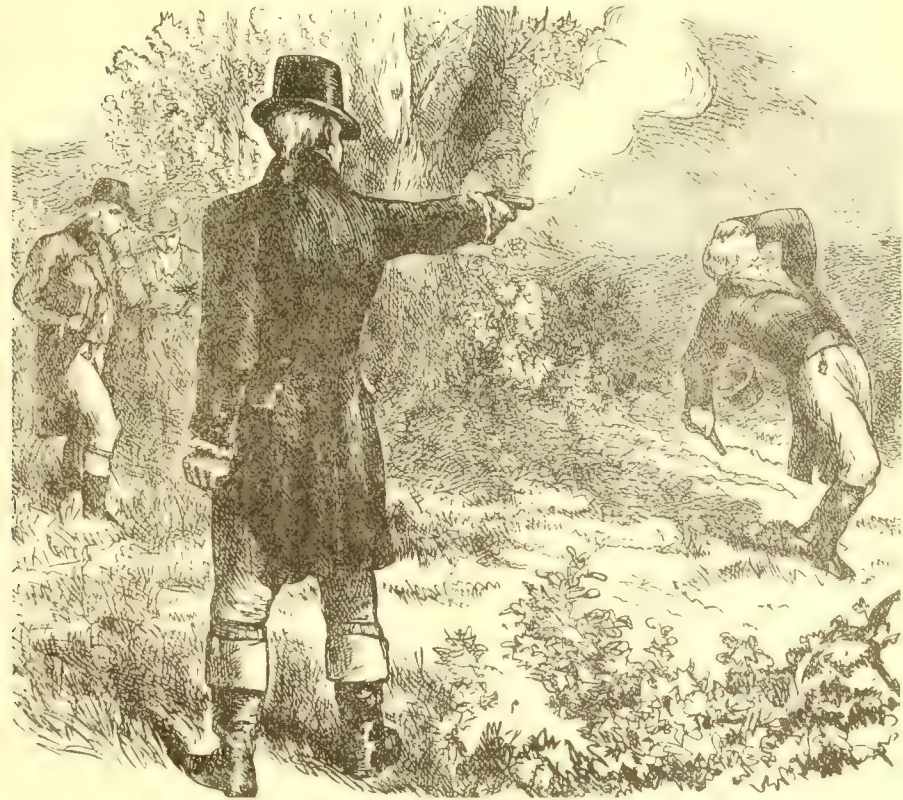
WASHINGTON'S GRAVE AT MOUNT VERNON

above Orleans; at the same time France transferred to Spain all the rest of her territory on the western side of the Mississippi. In 1800, the province was returned to France by Spain. This will account for the fact that the officers at Orleans, civil and military, were sometimes French and sometimes Spanish. At the time referred to the British had

of Orleans was a Spaniard, although France was the possessor of the province. Robert Livingstone agreed, for the United States, to pay sixty million francs to the French nation for the province of Louisiana. When Napoleon heard that the negotiation had been completed, he said, with great satisfaction, "I have given England a rival." In America there was comparative indifference in regard to the purchase. The western men were glad to be protected from the petty authority of the foreign officers at Orleans. But Robert Livingstone said—and no one contradicted him—that the United States had no wish to extend their boundaries across the Mississippi. The government took possession of the new territory by a public act on the 20th of December, 1803.

The Vice-President at this time was Aaron Burr, one of the most brilliant of American statesmen. When he had held the position of Vice-President for three years, he committed the great crime which began his downfall. He challenged Secretary Hamilton to a duel and killed him, as both Burr and Hamilton and everyone else knew that he would. In the election of 1804, when Jefferson was returned to office, Burr was not re-elected, and George Clinton became Vice-President in his stead. Burr was as restless and ambitious as ever. He had lost his friends, but his thirst for power had only increased. It is hard to tell just what motive actuated him when he drew about him a company of adventurers, and sailed down the Mississippi river with all the theatrical display and assurance of a conqueror. He and his followers were in search of fortune, authority, and empire. No crusade of the middle ages could have been more romantic or vaguely ambitious in its purpose. Many people thought, and still think, that his intention was to take Orleans and establish a western empire. Burr was a man of very rare magnetism. The man who wished to disbelieve in him must first avoid him. He was courtly, elegant, and accomplished, haughty with men, and suave with women. He had offended Washington by his profligacy, and on that account had been removed from Washington's military family at the time of the Revolution. As he went through the West, he took care to arouse in the pioneers of that country the hatred which they had so long felt against the Spaniards of Orleans. He begged them to remember Philip Nolan, a young agent of the American government, who had gone to Texas to collect horses for the Spanish post at Orleans, under a pass from the Governor of Texas. Through the treachery of the Spanish government he had been killed and all of his companions sent to the mines—mines in which so many unfortunates met with a mysterious end.

Burr visited Blennerhassett's Island, in the Ohio, not far from Marietta. Harmon Blennerhassett and his beautiful wife were emigrants from Ireland. They had purchased this exquisite island, built a fine house upon it, and lived there in state which was little less than princely. Even at that time of open and prodigal hospitality, they were celebrated for the splendor of their entertainments, and their large circle of distinguished friends. Mrs. Blennerhassett was a woman of



DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON.

queenly manners and of keen intellect, and the cleverest men and women in the nation were glad to know her and to have the entree of her house. Through her influence Burr won the co-operation of her husband, and Harmon Blennerhassett united himself to the adventurer and placed a large part of his fortune at his disposal. In the summer of 1806 Burr made the attempt which he had so long threatened. On Blennerhassett's Island he collected boats, provisions, arms and ammu-

nition. Here a goodly number of recruits joined him, and as the boats sailed down the Ohio and the Mississippi, other confederates were picked up by the way.

Jefferson, for many reasons, had shut his eyes to Burr's actions as long as possible, but was now forced into publishing a proclamation which denounced the whole scheme, and the United States Marshals of Virginia, Ohio and Kentucky made attempts to arrest the expedition, which, however, were not successful. As Burr neared Natchez, he had thirteen boats and sixty men in arms. Here the adventurer's party found the militia of the territory in arms to oppose them, and they were all taken to Natchez as prisoners. Burr was tried, but pronounced guilty of no crime, which showed how thoroughly the western people sympathized with him. Disguised as a boatman, he disappeared into the wilderness. In the middle of January he was discovered and arrested, and conducted to Richmond, Virginia, to be tried by the United States on a charge of high treason. Such, however, were his personal attractions still, that when he was placed under guard, it was thought necessary that every man in the squad should be taken apart and compelled to swear that no interviews should be held with Burr upon the road, and that he should not be permitted to escape. His trial lasted three or four weeks, and ended in a verdict of not guilty.

Burr became an exile in Europe, where he lived in great poverty and was shunned as a felon and an outlaw. He was ordered to quit England and while in France was kept constantly under the eyes of the police. Weary of such existence, he returned to America and resumed his profession of the law, but he never won the confidence or the friendship of any of his countrymen. His daughter Theodosia alone remained loyal to him. She was the wife of Governor Allston, of South Carolina. When she heard that Burr was returning from France, she set out from Charleston to meet him at New York, but the boat in which she sailed was never heard of again. This blow was the bitterest which Burr had endured, and the rest of his miserable life was spent sorrowfully alone. Blennerhassett died bankrupt and broken-hearted on the Isle of Guernsey. A few years later the beautiful Mrs. Blennerhassett died in New York, in the most abject poverty, and was buried by some lowly Irish women.

A fall more profound than that of Burr's has seldom been known. He came within one vote of being President of the United States; he died almost, if not literally, a beggar, with whom other beggars might have been ashamed to associate.

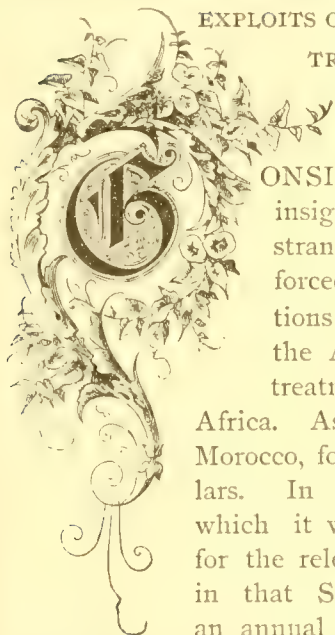
CHAPTER LXXII.

Decatur's Tribune.

THE PIRACY OF THE BARBARY STATES—WAR WITH TRIPOLI—

EXPLOITS OF OUR NAVAL HEROES—THE

TRIUMPH OF AMERICA.



CONSIDERING the comparative weakness and the insignificance of the Barbary States, it seems strange that for twenty years they should have forced the United States to submit to the depredations of their corsairs. From its earliest years the American government made a mistake in its treatment of the semi-barbarous States of northern Africa. As early as 1787 a treaty was ratified with Morocco, for which Congress paid eighty thousand dollars. In 1796 another was made with Algiers, by which it was agreed to pay forty thousand dollars for the release of thirteen Americans held as slaves in that State, a large amount of cash besides, and an annual tribute of twenty-five thousand dollars as the price of exemption from further aggressions. When there chanced to be a delay in the first remittance the Dey exacted still further tribute, and a ship of war costing about one hundred thousand dollars, was sent to him as a present for his daughter.

The Barbary States subsisted almost entirely by piracy, and it was not upon the United States alone that they levied such tribute, but upon European nations also, though, of course, England or France at any time could easily have humiliated them had they taken the trouble to do so. Thousands of Americans were taken captive and millions of dollars were spent for ransom. It was a common thing for notices to be read in American churches of the captivity of members of the church in Tripoli or Algiers, and a sum of money was usually raised for the ransom of each. It required four thousand dollars to rescue a captain or a passenger. The Dey said that if the people of the United States

paid him tribute, they were his slaves, and acting upon this principle, he force the frigate *George Washington* to carry his own tribute to the Sultan. This tribute consisted partly of slaves and wild animals, and was carried to Constantinople under the flag of the Barbary States. This insult was more than even Jefferson, with his dislike for war, could endure without a protest.

In 1801 Tripoli herself took the initiative and declared war before America did so. Jefferson sent four of the six American vessels to the Mediterranean. It was his policy to economize in every direction, and he believed that a navy was an unnecessary expense. He thought all that was necessary to protect the country was a few gunboats, capable of bearing but one gun each, which were to be kept under shelter where they could be easily launched in case of necessity. Many small engagements were fought in the Mediterranean which brought no notable results. In August, Lieutenant Sterrett, in the *Enterprise*, of twelve guns and ninety men, fought with a Tripolitan vessel of fourteen guns, off Malta. The Tripolitan vessel struck after a two-hours' fight, and then discharged another broadside when the Americans had left their guns and were cheering for their victory. Sterrett ordered his men back to the guns and raked the treacherous ship from end to end, not stopping till the mizzen mast was shot away, the hull riddled, fifty men killed and wounded and the colors thrown into the sea by the frantic commander. Sterrett then ordered that the enemy should throw all their arms and ammunition overboard. The remaining masts were cut away, the ship completely dismantled and then left to make its way home with a single sail. The Americans did not lose a man. As a matter of fact the Tripolitans were not good fighters, and they relied upon surprising their victims for their piratical successes. Their triumphs had usually been over peaceful merchantmen, whom they terrorized by their wild manner and show of blood-thirstiness. It became frequent for the Americans to destroy their vessels and crews without loss to themselves. In July, 1802, the frigate *Constellation* fought nine gunboats off Tripoli, and drove five of them ashore while the others escaped into the harbor. In June of the next year there was a battle of still greater odds. A cruiser from Tripoli, carrying twenty-two guns, was driven into a bay seven leagues east of Tripoli. Here, with nine gunboats about her and a body of cavalry on the beach, the *John Adams* and the *Enterprise* fought at close range for three-quarters of an hour, till the enemy's guns were silenced and her crew leaped overboard. The Americans were about to take possession of the boat,

when a boat-load of Tripolitans returned to her and re-opened fire. The *John Adams* replied, and the colors on the Tripolitan vessel were taken down. A moment later all her guns were discharged at once and she blew up with an explosion which tore her to pieces.

In 1803, the squadron on the Mediterranean had increased to nine ships, which carried in all two hundred and fourteen guns. The *Philadelphia* captured a Moorish cruiser which the Governor of Tangiers had authorized to prey upon American commerce. Commodore Preble entered the harbor of Tangiers with four of his fleet and asked an explanation of the Emperor, who claimed that he was not responsible for the act of the Governor, and renewed the treaty with the United States.

The *Philadelphia* struck upon a reef in the harbor of Tripoli, and while she was in this helpless state, was attacked by gunboats, and her commander, Captain Bainbridge, was compelled to surrender. The Tripolitans took advantage of an unusually high tide to haul her off and refit her. The American commodore was, of course, anxious to repossess this valuable vessel, or, failing in that, to unfit her for service by the Tripolitans, and Stephen Decatur successfully carried out a strategy by which this end was reached. He ran into the harbor one night in February, 1804, in a small prize vessel, the *Intrepid*. He pretended that the ship was a merchantman which had lost its anchor, and gained consent to make fast to the *Philadelphia*. At a signal his men arose from the decks, and poured through the ports and over the decks of the frigate. The barbarians ran shrieking to hide in the hold or dash into the sea, and in less than half an hour Decatur had cleared the decks, put combustibles in every part of the ship and set fire to them. By the time the *Philadelphia* was in flames the little vessel of Decatur was sailing away out of the harbor without the loss of a man.

On August 3d Preble entered the harbor of Tripoli with his fleet and bombarded the town from his mortar boats. His frigates and schooners were out where they could fire upon the batteries. Of the gunboats, three, for different reasons, were thrown out of the combat and the other three closed with the enemy. One of these, commanded by Lieutenant James Decatur, a brother of Stephen, forced a Tripolitan gunboat to yield, but as he was stepping upon deck, was treacherously shot through the head by the Tripolitan commander. The boats drifted apart and the enemy escaped. Stephen Decatur, in command of another boat, was fighting with might and main. He boarded one of the enemy's boats, and dividing his men into two parties, charged

around each side of the open hatchway, calling for surrender and bayoneting all who resisted. When he had done his work here thoroughly, he closed with the boat where he knew his brother had just been murdered. He boarded this recklessly, and after a fierce fight, singled out the captain who had shot his brother. He was an immense barbarian, armed with a sharp pike. He and Decatur closed in a hand-to-hand fight. Decatur's sword broke at the hilt, and he parried the thrust of the pike with his naked arm. It entered his breast, but he wrenched it out, tore the staff away from his enemy, grappled him and rolled him upon the deck. The savage Turk struggled to draw his poniard, but Decatur grasped his pistol and shot his antagonist, who fell back dying upon the deck. In the midst of this, a blow was aimed at Decatur from behind by a Tripolitan officer. This would doubtless have killed the distinguished commander had not a young sailor named Reuben James stretched out his arm to receive the blow. The life of Decatur was saved, but it was at the expense of the right arm of the young sailor. There were eighty men in the two boats captured by Decatur, and of these fifty-two were killed or wounded. The third boat engaged in the struggle was commanded by Lieutenant Tripp, who boarded one of the enemy's gunboats and by a rebound of his own boat, was left with only ten men on the deck of the enemy. The two commanders fought each other—the Tripolitan with a sword, Tripp with a pike. The American, covered with wounds, was forced to the deck, but with a sudden renewal of strength, succeeded in piercing the Turk with his pike. The rest of the crew surrendered. At the close of the engagement it was found that three of the enemy's boats were sunk and three others captured. The Americans had but fourteen killed and wounded.

A little later than this, Commodore Preble engaged in a conflict with some of the enemy's vessels, in which he lost eighteen men. Most of these were injured by the explosion of the magazines of one of his gunboats. A few days later the bomb ketch *Intrepid* was fitted up as an "infernal," and one hundred barrels of powder and missiles were put in her hold in tightly planked rooms. In the deck, immediately above, were piled one hundred and fifty shells and a great quantity of shot and fragments of iron. The plan was for her to be taken by a crew of men in among the Tripolitan fleet. The combustibles were to be fired and the men make their escape in two boats. There was a thick haze over the water and her movements could not be seen by the enemy. She had neared the enemy's batteries before they saw her and opened fire. Exactly what happened has never been known, but a

light was seen to move horizontally along her deck, then to drop out of sight, and the next minute there was a frightful explosion, a great shaft of fire darting up from the vessel and the blazing rigging and canvas were lifted high into the air. The thirteen bodies of the crew were found two days later mangled beyond recognition. Little or no harm had been done to the enemy by the explosion of the boat.

In November, 1804, Samuel Barron was made Commodore of the Mediterranean squadron, which then consisted of ten vessels, carrying two hundred and sixty-four guns. The United States had never before assembled so large a squadron. At this time America took advantage of a national dispute among the Tripolitans to strengthen herself there. The reigning Bashaw of Tripoli had gained the throne by deposing his elder brother, and the United States agreed to reinstate the exiled prince. They got together a force of adventurers from various nations and the American flag was raised upon Derne—the first time that it ever floated over any fortification on that side of the Atlantic. The town surrendered, and the reigning Bashaw was frightened into making peace. The United States no longer paid tribute, the prisoners in the hands of the Tripolitans were ransomed, and for some time Barbary States ceased to trouble America. But they dealt most unfairly by the exiled prince, whom they had promised to return to his throne. Again he was exiled, and this time without his wife and children, who were kept as hostages by his brother for his peaceful behavior in the future. He complained to the United States that they had left him in poverty and wretchedness, but they paid no attention to his appeal. They were learning lessons in statesmanship!

FOR FURTHER READING:

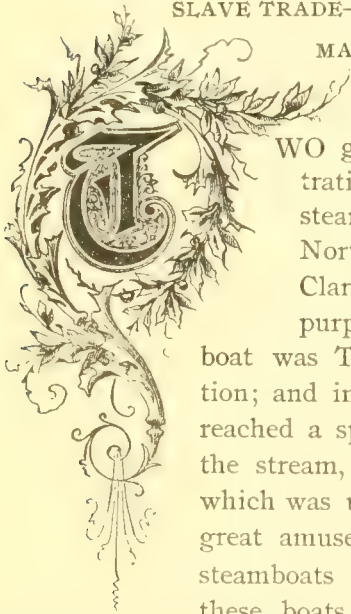
BIOGRAPHY—McKenzie's "Life of Stephen Decatur."

POETRY—C. H. Calvert's "Reuben James."

CHAPTER LXXIII.

“Jeffersonian Simplicity.”

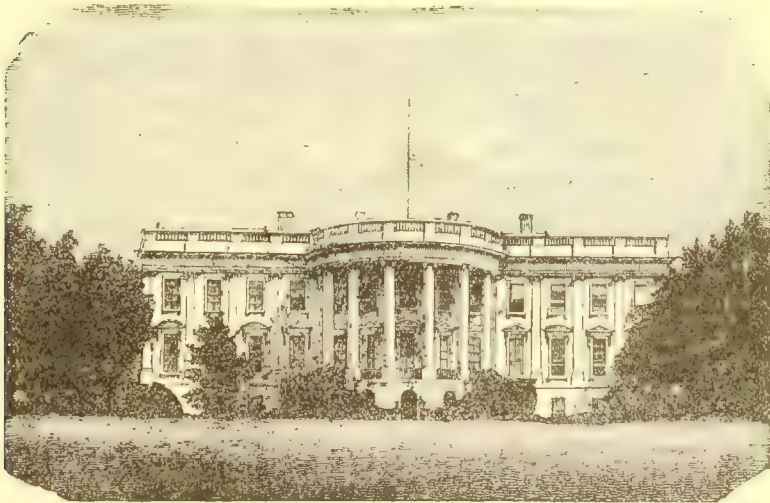
EXPLORATION OF THE NORTHWEST—INTRODUCTION OF THE STEAM-
BOAT—PASSAGE OF A LAW FORBIDDING THE AFRICAN
SLAVE TRADE—THE JEFFERSONIAN POLICY—
MARITIME TROUBLES.



WO great enterprises marked Jefferson's administration. One of these was the invention of the steamboat; the other was the exploration of the Northwest by Meriwether Lewis and William Clarke, whom the President sent out for that purpose. The first person to propose the steamboat was Thomas Paine, in 1778, during the Revolution; and in 1784, James Ramsey built a vessel, which reached a speed of three or four miles an hour against the stream, on the Potomac. James Fitch built one, which was used on the Delaware, and predicted, to the great amusement of everyone who heard of it, that steamboats would one day cross the Atlantic. But these boats were constructed upon a principle which made them impracticable, and the first one built upon the present plan was launched on the Hudson, by Robert Fulton, in 1807. Three years before, Fulton had urged upon Napoleon, in Paris, his plans for the steamboat. Napoleon, always progressive, was willing to witness the trial of a boat and adopt it for the use of his nation, should it prove successful. But the experimental vessel was built too slightly, and the boiler and engine proved a greater weight than it could bear. They broke through it, and sank to the bottom of the Seine. Fulton was dismissed in disgrace, and returned to his own country. The *Clermont*, which he launched upon the Hudson, made the trip from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours, and back again in thirty. Fulton said that the morning he left New York, there were not more than

thirty persons in the city who believed that the boat would ever move one mile an hour. Indeed, he was laughed at very heartily, and the vessel was called "Fulton's Folly." But as it went up the river against wind and tide, at the rate of five miles an hour, throwing showers of sparks into the air and making a great roar of machinery and paddles, the people gave a shout of applause, the first sign of encouragement which the devoted inventor had ever received. After this, steamboats increased rapidly, and, by the suggestion of many thoughtful men, were greatly improved and soon in general use, although it was a long time before an ocean steamer was ever built, and it was not until 1812 that a steamboat navigated the waters of the Ohio.

It was in 1804 that Lewis and Clarke were given their commissions by the President, and started out with a large party to explore the



THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON

waters of the Missouri river, cross the mountain range and descend to the Pacific. For twenty-six hundred miles they pushed their flotilla against the current of the Missouri; then, leaving a considerable portion of the party to guard the boats, they crossed the mountains, mounted on horses which they had captured, and discovered the two streams which are known as the Lewis and Clarke rivers. They followed up these rivers to where they joined with the Columbia, and then went on to the sea. Robert Grey, of Salem, Massachusetts, had discovered the river Columbia in May, 1792, he being the first man to carry the American flag around Cape Horn and up the Pacific ocean.

He had named the river after his ship, the *Columbia Rediviva*. Lewis and Clarke met upon their journey with numerous Indian tribes who had never before seen white men—many, indeed, who had never heard of them. This journey was the first ever made by any white man to the Pacific, north of the line of Mexico.

One important event that happened during Jefferson's administration was the passage of a law forbidding the African slave trade. It will be remembered that this trade had existed ever since 1619, and it was agreed when the constitution was formed that there should be no interference with the slave trade until January 1, 1808. More than a year before that time President Jefferson called the attention of Congress to the subject, and congratulated the members upon the fact that they would soon be able to forbid the barbarous traffic. The debate which followed in Congress was very long and bitter. Although no one was in favor of continuing the slave trade, there were wonderfully wide differences of opinion as to the best way of putting it down. It was argued, too, that if it was right to hold slaves at all, it could not be wrong to import them. At length, under the lead of Joshua Quincy, of Massachusetts, and others, a law was passed forbidding the importation of slaves from any foreign country into the United States after the year 1807. But in spite of the law, slaves were secretly imported for many years, until treaties were made with other maritime countries by which the slave trade was declared to be piracy. But it must be understood that the slave trade between the different States of the American Union was not abolished. The only States free from it were those which had incorporated in their charter an act forbidding slavery forever within their borders.

The population of the country had nearly doubled in twenty years. At the end of the first ten years of the century the census showed a population of seven million two hundred and forty thousand. Wealth was increasing in a much greater proportion. After the invention of Whitney's cotton gin the exportation of cotton had increased from one hundred and eighty-nine thousand pounds exported in 1791, to sixty-two million pounds exported in 1811. Not alone in this, but in every direction, increase of prosperity was visible. Ship-building and fisheries were sources of great wealth. The State of Ohio was organized and admitted into the Union in 1802, making the seventeenth State of the Union. When its people adopted a constitution, they incorporated in it some principles which were new to the world, and which were much considered in the formation of other States. To encourage settlement,

they provided that for four years after any settler purchased land of the United States no local taxes should be laid upon it, and Congress met this generosity of the people with another gift, which has been made a precedent in all similar legislation since that time. This law granted to the State one township in each section of their survey for the establishment of its schools. This gave to the new States of America opportunities for public education which are unequaled in the world. Thus it came about that for that State and all which followed it, every man who desired could lay claim to a generous portion of land, and could have, without expense to himself, a liberal education for all of his children.

Emigration to the Ohio valley became rapid. It no longer seemed as far west as it had previously, though people still thought that any man who had looked upon Lake Michigan was a very great traveler indeed. There had been but comparatively little interest felt in that vast stretch of western territory, but the purchase of Louisiana, which more than doubled the area of the national territory, and the tales which Lewis and Clarke brought back of the richness of the mysterious northwest country, aroused an interest which had never been felt before. In the narrative, which the explorers published, they told of finding the buffalo so numerous that in one case a herd occupied the whole breadth of the river a mile wide, and the party had to stop for an hour to see the animals pass by. Trade with the Indians was another spur to western excursions, and a New York merchant, John Jacob Astor, started a trading post called Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia river. But this post was afterwards sold to one of the British fur companies.

Jefferson's administration was very different in all social respects from that of Washington and Adams. From the severity of his life and habits we have gained the expression, "Jeffersonian simplicity." Washington, upon his inauguration, had driven in a coach and six to the capital, dressed in velvet and wearing costly jewels. Jefferson, on a like occasion, rode on horseback in a dress which, though careful, was certainly not ceremonious. When he dismounted he tied his own horse to a post, walked unattended into the Capitol building, and read his address. Upon his second election he did not go to the capital at all, but set the example of sending a "message" to Congress by a secretary. This has been the practice ever since. He did not believe in those stately ceremonies which had graced Washington's time, and he abolished the weekly levees, only opening his doors on New Year's day and the 4th of July, at which time he welcomed any one who cared to see

him. He was a strong believer in universal suffrage, and thought that all men had a right to vote for their own rulers. The Democratic party sustained him in this, but the Federal doubted whether it would be safe to place the ballot in the hands of the people and leave government to popular vote. At that time republican government, even to the most patriotic, was a thing looked on with distrust. Jefferson was very anxious to pay off the indebtedness of the government, and he succeeded in paying thirty-three millions of debt. This was largely done by reducing the expense of government, and to this day it is a mooted question as to whether this economy was wise or not.

A great carrying trade had fallen to America because of the European war, which placed an embargo upon European courts. Holland, Italy and France were largely dependent upon America for sugar, as well as coffee. Tobacco and cotton were also largely exported. The extensive trade of the West Indies was transacted for the most part through the United States. So profitable did the carrying trade become that building and maritime commerce increased in a ratio larger than that of the population. In commercial rivalry with Great Britain, the new nation almost equaled the old in her shipping on the seas. It was not strange that the older nation should look on this with jealousy, and out of this jealousy there grew a rancour which caused the seizure of many an American merchantman. When it was proved that the ship was neutral in the court of inquiry, it would be released, but if by chance the cargo had been perishable, the ship owner had suffered a severe damage for which he could obtain no reprisal.

Thus it happened that American merchantmen were constantly obliged to submit to indignities of one sort and another. Chiefest among these was the impressment of her seamen into the English service, for it was quite common for English officers, seeking deserters from the King's service, to overhaul American vessels and look for the deserters, very frequently taking off with them an American-born man. This trouble culminated in the proclamations known as the Decrees of Berlin and Milan and the Orders in Council. By the Berlin and Milan decrees, Napoleon declared the English Islands to be in a state of blockade, and claimed the right to seize all vessels trading with England or her dependencies. The English Government replied to these decrees by the "Orders in Council" prohibiting all commerce with those parts of the continent of Europe which were under the dominion of France or her allies. Practically, this meant all of Europe except Russia, and laid American vessels open to seizure wherever they might go. The

United States protested against these blockades, and maintained that the blockade of a port must be maintained by a competent force upon the spot. This, of course, was the right and dignified position to take, but the country had no navy to sustain its policy, and this is where Jefferson's economy showed itself to be poor and false. He did not even believe in fortifications for harbors, but thought they should be protected by cannons on wheels, which could be dragged from place to place as they were needed. Thus it was that America was obliged to submit to these insults when native pride prompted every man in the country to resent them. At length, however, the United States frigate *Chesapeake* was overhauled at sea by an English vessel, which fired several broadsides into the American ship. As the *Chesapeake* had gone to sea without any expectation of war, the men were not able to fire a gun, and the English officers carried off four deserters which had belonged to their crew, but had been previously impressed from an American ship. Jefferson forbade American harbors and waters to all vessels of the English navy, and sent a vessel of war with a special minister to London to demand satisfaction. The English offered reparation, but at the same time issued a proclamation, directing commanders to make a demand for all English seamen serving on all foreign ships of war, and to report refusal should they meet with it. There would doubtless have been war as a result of this, had the Americans possessed a navy to fight with. When Congress met in 1807, it prohibited the departure from American ports of all American vessels. No merchandise of any kind was to be exported. The people of the United States, and particularly of the South, were foolish enough to believe that Europe would suffer severely if it did not receive her products, and that they were practically making war against England without expense to themselves or danger to their fellow-citizens. But at the North, where men were engaged in commerce, ship-masters and seamen were naturally dissatisfied with a measure which kept them shut in port. It was actually a fact that the grass grew in the streets and on the piers of the sea-board cities, and as week after week passed, the depression of trade grew deeper, until the fallacy of the measure became apparent to all, and Jefferson awoke to the realization that the States which had been his warmest friends, rebelled against his policy. At this time a presidential election came on.

FOR FURTHER READING

- TRAVELS—Lewis' and Clarke's "Expedition to the Rocky Mountains."
FICTION—Mrs. Stowe's "Minister's Wooing."
J. C. Hart's "Mariam Coffin."

CHAPTER LXXIV.

War Again.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON—THE SOUTHERN WAR PARTY

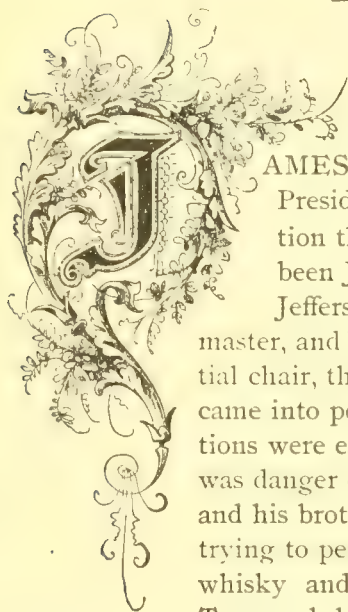
—DECLARATION OF WAR AND POPULAR PROTEST—

THE TROUBLES ON THE WESTERN FRON-

TIER — THE CHICAGO MASSACRE

—SURRENDER OF

HULL.



JAMES MADISON, of Virginia, was the next President. He had been a member of the convention that had framed the Constitution, and had been Jefferson's friend upon all occasions. Indeed Jefferson may be said to have been his political master, and he was anxious that when he left the presidential chair, the mantle should fall upon Madison. Madison came into power at a troublous time. The foreign relations were especially unfortunate, and in the West there was danger on the frontier. The Indian chief Tecumseh and his brother the "Prophet" had for a long time been trying to persuade the western tribes to give up drinking whisky and return to the customs of their fathers. Tecumseh held also that the treaty made in 1809, by William Henry Harrison, Governor of the Indiana territory, with several of the tribes, ceded to the government lands which belonged to the Indians. Harrison invited Tecumseh and his brother to a conference, which barely escaped ending in a massacre. The attitude of the Indians was so threatening after this that Harrison, with two thousand men, ascended the Wabash and built a military post at Terre Haute. This was in 1811. Harrison tried in vain to open friendly relations with the "Prophet," but when he found that he could not hope to succeed in doing this, he marched against the Indian village and encamped within ten miles of it, on the Tippecanoe. On the morning

of September 7th his camp was surprised by the savages. The soldiers had the presence of mind to put out their camp-fires, that they might not furnish so ready a target for the arrows of the enemy, and forming in a square, fought the Indians with courage. When the sun arose the men who were mounted made a charge which dispersed the enemy. Harrison found the Prophet's town deserted the next day and burnt it.

At this time Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and John Calhoun, of South Carolina, both young and ambitious men, stood at the head of the southern party who desired to have war with England. New England was anxious for a fleet, if such a war was to be undertaken, but the southern faction consisted of the slave-holding element, and were not willing to unite with New England in any measure, or even to accept her advice. The plan was to invade Canada by the enlargement of the regular army and the help of the militia. Madison desired peace, but as another election day rapidly neared, he was informed that unless he declared for war he would not be renominated as a candidate for the presidency. He was a man who had long been overshadowed by others, and his ambition now was supreme. He declared war against England June 18, 1812.

A protest against the war was drawn up by Joshua Quincy, of Massachusetts, and signed by thirty-eight members of the House. They denounced the war as a pretext to give aid to Napoleon against England, and showed how unprepared the nation was, without either army or navy, to begin a contest with the strongest nation in the world, and they pointed out to their constituents the fact that the declaration of war was a party measure and that it was dangerous to the Union in the extreme. The people also expressed extreme disapprobation; ministers made it the subject of sermons; it occupied the pens of the pamphlet-writers and was the subject most discussed in newspapers. Against the Federalists, who took this view of the matter, the Democrats, who constituted the war party, were greatly incensed. On June 22, 1812, a mob sacked the office of the *Federal Republican*, in Baltimore, and followed it up by doing great damage to several houses belonging to Federalists and to vessels in the harbor. Within a month the editor of the *Federal Republican*, Alexander Hanson, once more issued his sheet. The office was again attacked, but Hanson had taken means for defending his property and fired upon the mob, killing one and wounding several. When the militia was called out, instead of arresting the rioters, they arrested Hanson and his party and lodged them in jail, where they were again attacked by the mob, who killed, in the

most wanton manner, General Lingen, and lamed General Henry Lee for life. The ringleaders of the mob were tried, but acquitted. The regular army at this time numbered six thousand men. To these were added fifty thousand volunteers and one hundred thousand militiamen, and Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts, was given the command. General William Hull, the Governor of Michigan, was appointed commander in the West and was ordered to be in readiness to invade Canada in the event of war. His intimate acquaintance with the country made him well aware of the danger which was run by taking a warlike attitude in a territory where there were so many Indians. But he was not able to impress upon the government all of the needs and conditions, and marched from Ohio with about two thousand men, chiefly militia, who were especially uncontrollable and insubordinate. When the declaration of war reached him, he promptly crossed the Detroit river, a few miles below Detroit, for the purpose of taking Fort Malden. He issued a proclamation promising protection to the inhabitants, but stating that no quarter would be given to those who were fighting in company with the Indians. The news of the declaration of war reached the Canadian commanders before it did Hull, and the first movement was upon the part of the English who took the fort at Michelimackinac by surprise and compelled its surrender. The Indians, who were always ambitious to be on the strongest side, immediately joined the English. This filled Hull with great apprehensions, and he sent to Captain Nathan Heald, who was in command of Fort Dearborn, where Chicago now stands, to hasten and join him at Detroit. The Indians about Chicago were supposed to be friendly, but their actions were perplexing, and Heald was anxious about the outcome. He promised the Indians the property in the fort which he could not take away, and in the night he destroyed the firearms, gunpowder and liquor, which was the articles for which they were most eager. On the morning of August 15th, he set out with fifty soldiers and the families of the village. The party followed the road by the shore of the lake which was guarded by a low range of sand hills, behind which the disappointed Indians were crouched. At a point near the southern extremity of what is now the Lake Front Park, the Indians rushed upon them with their war cry. In the conflict which followed, the women fought with the men, but they were no match for the savages, and such as survived after a short but deadly struggle surrendered. Of these, all the wounded were scalped, for it was known that the British Colonel Proctor, at Malden, had offered a high price for American scalps. The children, twelve of

them in all, had been put together in one wagon, in the futile hope that the Indians might spare them, but the little ones were all tomahawked by one Indian. The massacre was attended by peculiar horrors, which are too terrible to bear description.

At about the same time Hull sent out Thomas B. Van Horne to guard a supply train. Horne's detachment met a force of English and Indians at Brownstown, and were defeated with dreadful slaughter. Another expedition, under Lieutenant-Colonel James Miller, was sent to open communication with the base of supplies at Racine river. These were caught in an Indian ambuscade, but after a valiant fight for two hours succeeded in routing the savages and returned to their boats. They left fifty of their comrades dead behind them, but had the satisfaction of knowing that twice that number of Indians had been killed. Hull retreated to Detroit, where, with the eight hundred and fifty men still left him, he made arrangements for defense. The rest of his men had been sent on distant expeditions. On the 16th of August General Isaac Brock, the English commander, crossed the Detroit river with over two thousand regulars and Indians, and demanded the surrender of the city. When Brock demanded surrender he had said that he could not restrain his allies, the Indians, from rapine and murder, in case the place should be carried by assault. Hull dared not rely upon his insubordinate militia for any desperate fighting, and as he had learned that the officers had formed a conspiracy to take away his command from him, he decided to surrender. He knew that if he defended the place and his enemies succeeded in defeating him, the fate of the women and children would be terrible. Among them was a part of his own family, and he had not the courage to run the risk. He surrendered without making an effort to fight, and for this was counted a traitor, tried by court-martial and condemned to be shot. But Madison, remembering that he had served through the Revolution with devotion, and feeling that the neglect of the government had much to do with the case, pardoned him.

FOR FURTHER READING

HISTORY—Deake's "Life of Tecumseh and the Prophet."

FICTION—Richardson's "Hardscrabble."

Richardson's "Wauaugee."

Mrs. Kenzie's "Warbon."

POETRY—C. H. Colton's "Tecumseh."

CHAPTER LXXV.

“Never Give Up the Ship.”

WAR OF 1812—THE NIAGARA CAMPAIGN—THE BATTLE OF QUEENSTOWN—NAVAL OPERATIONS—THE SIX TRIUMPHS OF THE AMERICANS—AFFAIRS IN THE WEST—THE CONFLICT ON THE LAKES—PERRY’S VICTORY.



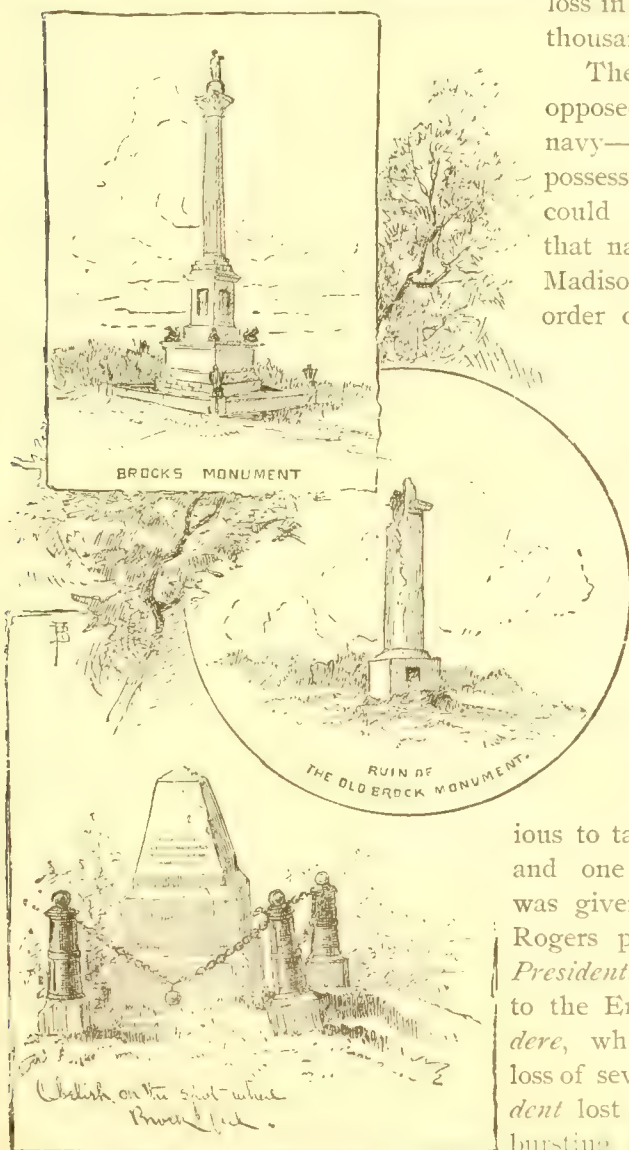
GENERAL STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER had been given command on the Niagara frontier, with orders to capture the heights of Queenstown. On the morning of October 13, 1812, he sent two small columns across the river. Some of the men succeeded in landing, but several of the boats lost their way. The regulars charged up a hill and took position on a plateau, waiting here for the attack of the enemy. The American force was worsted and obliged to retreat to the beach. They were here reinforced, and ordered to scale the heights, which they did, capturing a battery at the top of the slope. General Brock had heard of the conflict, and had ridden at full speed from Fort Dodge. Upon his appearance on the field the English regained courage, and made an effort to recover their battery. They drove the Americans to the very verge of the precipice. The American commander realized that a desperate defence must be made, and he cheered on his men to such a fierce assault that the English broke and fled down the slope. General Brock made a brave effort to reorganize the English, but fell, mortally wounded. Three other officers in turn took up his command, but all fell, and a retreat was ordered. Lieutenant-colonel Winfield Scott now reinforced the Americans, and assumed command on the heights. He had expected that the militia would follow him, but the militia refused to be taken out of their State, and cautiously remained where they were. The British were quick to take advantage of Scott's unprotected

position, and charged upon him with a heavy force. He repelled them twice with the bayonet, and upon the third charge, in which the English were reinforced, the Americans were driven to the precipice, and let themselves down from ledge to ledge, hanging by bushes and roots till they reached the water. The boats were not here to receive them, and they were forced to surrender, making the entire American

loss in this action about one thousand.

The war party were much opposed to the use of the navy—if the few gunboats possessed by the Americans could be distinguished by that name—but, at length, Madison was persuaded to order out the vessels, such as they were. The British navy at this time had more than one thousand vessels, manned by one hundred and forty-four thousand sailors. The United States had twenty large war vessels and a few gunboats, together carrying about three hundred guns. The navy itself was anx-

ious to take part in the war, and one hour after consent was given Commodore John Rogers put to sea in the *President*, and gave chase to the English frigate *Belvidere*, which escaped with a loss of seven men. The *President* lost sixteen men by the bursting of a gun, and six



from the fire of the enemy. Rogers went on across the Atlantic, capturing an English privateer and seven merchantmen, and retaking an American prize. At the same time an English squadron off New York captured several merchantmen and the man-of-war *Nautilus*.

Thus began the wars upon the seas. After this there were numerous engagements, one of the most notable of which was the victory of the frigate *Constitution*, under Captain Isaac Hull. He fought the British frigate *Guerrière*. The vessels opened broadsides upon each other at close range, and finally grappled, both parties trying to board. But the sea was rough and the musketry fire unceasing, and they were obliged to give this up. The *Guerrière* lost her mainmast and foremast, and the *Constitution* freed herself, and got into a position where she could take her antagonist fore and aft. The *Guerrière*, therefore, struck. The Americans lost but fourteen men and the British seventy-nine, losing their ship into the bargain, for in the morning it was found necessary to blow her up, as she was sinking. It was said that the victory to the Americans came through superior gun practice, which was not a little astonishing to the English, who had especially prided themselves upon proficiency in that direction. The Americans had placed sights upon their guns and could, therefore, fire with great accuracy. The English, as yet, had not adopted this plan. When Captain Hull landed in Boston he was met with a public welcome. Triumphant arches had been raised, the streets decorated, and he and his officers were entertained at a public dinner. In New York and Philadelphia he met with a like recognition of his services, and Congress voted him a gold medal, and his crew fifty thousand dollars. At the beginning of autumn, in the conflict between the *Wasp*, of America, and the *Frolic*, of England, the vessels grappled and the Americans sprang on the deck of the *Frolic* and compelled surrender. The *Frolic* carried a large crew, of which only twenty were unhurt. A few weeks later, Commodore Stephen Decatur captured a packet with a large amount of specie, and afterwards fell in with the frigate *Macedonia* with which he fought two hours. The *Macedonia* struck, and owned to a loss of one hundred and four men. Decatur lost but twelve. Captain Bainbridge fell in with the British frigate *Java*, off the coast of South America, and after a fight of two hours the *Java* struck, having lost every spar and one hundred and twenty men. Bainbridge's frigate, the *Constitution*, lost but thirty-four men. It was this engagement which gave to the *Constitution* the title of "Old Ironsides." England was amazed, that in the six encounters at sea the enemy should have

been successful in every one. The war party of America was almost amazed at the success of the navy, since it had steadily objected to its use. But the capture of three hundred British merchantmen which were now kept in American ports, and the presence of the three thousand prisoners belonging to them, was a matter which could not be belittled.

Early in the winter of 1812, a new army, numbering about ten thousand, drawn from the Western States, was put under command of William Henry Harrison, for the purpose of recovering the territory lost by Hull's surrender of Detroit. An advance detachment at that time occupying Monroe, Michigan, was attacked on January 22d by fifteen hundred British and Indians, under Colonel Henry Proctor. The Americans fought behind fences, but these were poor shields against the British artillery. General Winchester was captured, and from what he saw in the enemy's lines, feared that wholesale slaughter would ensue unless the Americans surrendered. He found means to send word to that effect, and the Americans surrendered, under Proctor's promise of protection against the Indians. This promise was broken, and the Indians not only killed all the prisoners, but tortured them cruelly. Harrison now hastened to build Fort Meigs, at the rapids of the Maumee river, and Proctor besieged this work in April, threatening, as usual, that if the place was carried by assault the men would be massacred. The Americans succeeded in spiking the enemy's batteries, and Proctor was forced to raise the siege. A little later, Tecumseh, the Indian chief, joined Proctor, and their force, five thousand strong, attacked Fort Stevenson, on the Sandusky, where Fremont now stands. The garrison numbered but one hundred and sixty men and possessed but one gun. When Major George Croghan received the summons to surrender or be massacred, he replied that when the fort was taken there would be no men left to kill. After bombarding the fort without effect for a long time from their gunboats and with the field artillery, the British advanced to the attack on two sides at the same moment. Croghan placed his single gun where it would sweep the ditch. He loaded it to the muzzle, and waited till the attacking party leaped over the ditch. In the discharge it swept down nearly every man. A second column met with a like fate and the party retreated.

The attention of the nation was turned more particularly for a time to the lakes, where both parties were struggling hard for ascendancy. Isaac Chauncey was the American commodore, and Sir James Yeo the British admiral. Both countries had expended much money and pains

upon the fitting out of fleets, and here it was felt the war would be largely decided. In April, 1813, Commodore Chauncey's fleet carried General Dearborn and fifteen hundred men from Sackett's Harbor, and landed them two miles west of what is now Toronto. At that time it was called York, and was the capital of Upper Canada. The expedition had for its purpose the capture of a large ship then building at the docks, the capture of which Chauncey thought necessary to his success. But the ship was afloat before Chauncey and his fleet reached York, and nothing came of the movement. When the Americans had landed, under protection of a well-armed schooner, the body of English and Indians, who had withstood them, fell back behind some fortifications. They were closely followed by the Americans, who ordered that a halt should be made till the artillery had time to come up. While they were waiting, a magazine near the works, containing one hundred barrels of powder, exploded, killing or wounding two hundred Americans. But they rallied and pressed forward into the town, and during the four days which they remained, fired the government buildings. In the legislative chamber they found a human scalp hanging as a trophy, or a reminder of their Indian allies, and this was sent, with the speaker's mace and a British standard, to Washington. Chauncey now returned to Sackett's Harbor, landing Dearborn and his force near the mouth of the Niagara river. Here, a month later, Chauncey rejoined them and Fort George was taken. At this time Yeo, the English admiral, with General Prevost, was on his way to Sackett's Harbor, which had been left almost without defense at the time that Dearborn was in York. The English attacked the town in front, while their Indian allies fought at the rear. The American militia fled after the first fire, but the regulars and volunteers fought until they were forced to take refuge in the log barracks. Their commander ordered them to pretend to march for the boats, and General Prevost, fearing that his escape would be cut off, ordered a retreat leaving two hundred and sixty dead and wounded behind him. The loss among the Americans was as severe in proportion to their numbers, and their stores, which were worth half a million dollars, were unfortunately burned. Several other mishaps overtook the Americans on the Niagara frontier, and closed the campaign for the summer with as melancholy a record of defeat as could well be imagined.

On Lake Erie, however, there was an exploit which was most successful for the Americans. Here a squadron was commanded by Captain Oliver Hazard Perry. By August he was afloat with ten vessels,

carrying fifty-five guns, in vigorous search of the British squadron of six vessels, which bore sixty-five guns and was commanded by Captain Barclay. These forces did not meet till the middle of September. The English squadron drew up in line of battle, but the American line was straggling, and one of the American vessels was soon reduced to a wreck and obliged to drop out of action. Perry left her, took a small boat, and in the midst of a fierce storm of bullets reached the *Niagara*. He sailed this vessel straight through the British lines, delivering broadsides on both sides as he went. Then getting across the bows of the English vessels he raked two or three of them while his smaller craft poured in grape and canister. Perry told the outcome of the day's work in his brief despatch to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop."

Harrison was transported by Perry's fleet to the Canadian shore of the Detroit river and besieged Fort Malden. The English general set fire to the place and retreated, and Harrison pursued him by land while Perry carried his baggage and supplies by water. On the 5th of October Proctor turned about and faced his pursuers, choosing a position where he could plant his guns in a highway, and be protected on each side by marshes. Tecumseh was with Proctor, and the Indians and British were arrayed for the defence of the highway. Harrison placed his mounted infantry in the front of the ranks, and faced the Indians who were in the marsh. The horsemen moved slowly when the bugle gave them the signal, but increased their pace till they dashed with terrible force through the enemy, killing, capturing or scattering the English regulars. Proctor was pursued by a dozen well-mounted men, but escaped. Tecumseh was killed and the Indians fled. The Americans had regained the territory of Michigan, and Harrison and his troops returned to Buffalo. This decisive conflict was known as the battle of the Thames. Hull, and then Dearborn, had then been retired with their military reputations shattered, and General Wilkinson was now put in charge of the northern forces, which consisted of Harrison's force at Buffalo, the force at Fort George, that at Sackett's Harbor, and the right wing of the Vermont frontier, under Wade Hampton, these numbering altogether about twelve thousand men. Wilkinson was in poor health, and was much more interested in a whisky bottle than in a campaign, and therefore left his command largely to inferior officers. It was the plan for him to move down the St. Lawrence with a part of the men, while Hampton was to advance overland, make a junction

with him and the whole army was to move upon Montreal. To make the road easy, Chauncey drove Yeo into port and kept him there. But notwithstanding this, the Americans met with many disasters. The weather was bad, the boats poor, and some were driven ashore, while others went to the bottom, causing the delay of the whole flotilla until they could be replaced. At Williamsburg, they encountered troops to the number of seventeen hundred. A sharp battle followed, from which both parties retired in good order with a loss which was similar upon both sides. The other general, Wade Hampton, was as inefficient as Wilkinson, and he sent word that he could not make the junction agreed upon. Upon receiving this news Wilkinson willingly went into winter quarters. Hampton, with five thousand men, had been successfully checked by the English Lieutenant-Colonel de Dalaberry, who had a force of four or five hundred. In December General Drummond appeared between Lakes Ontario and Erie, and the Americans holding Fort George, which had been so expensively gained the summer before, fled at his approach, taking refuge in Fort Niagara and burning Newark as they went. The enemy followed them and captured Fort Niagara without meeting with any respectable resistance. They killed eighty of the garrison, including the men in the hospital. A number of towns were destroyed, and all the farming region laid waste, many of the inhabitants being put to death.

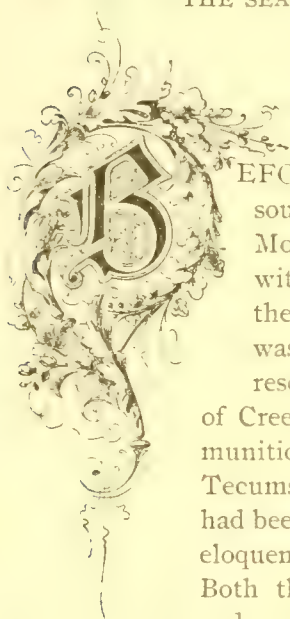
FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION—Kirkland's *Zurix*.
 W. C. Iron's "The Double Hero."
 POETRY—J. G. Percival's "Perry's Victory on Lake Erie."
 Oliver W. Holmes' "Old Ironsides."
 Levi Bishop's "Battle of the River Raisin."

CHAPTER LXXVI.

“Blue Lights.”

THE WAR WITH THE CREEKS—JACKSON'S CAMPAIGN—AFFAIRS ON
THE SEA-BOARD—“YANKEE” STRATEGY—
THE TREATY OF PEACE.



BEFORE Wilkinson had been removed from the southern to the northern departments, he had taken Mobile away from the Spaniards. This he did without resistance. It was done in accordance with the claim that the eastern boundary of Louisiana was the Perdido river. Spain denied this, and resented the seizure of Mobile. The powerful tribe of Creek Indians were given supplies of arms and ammunition at Pensacola and incited against the Americans. Tecumseh, who had since met with a warrior's death, had been sent south to lash the Creeks by his resentful eloquence into a still more warlike frame of mind. Both the English and the Spaniards urged them on, and early in 1813 they began their hostilities. In the first encounter they were defeated, but in the second one, at Fort Mimms, a thousand of them, under the command of a noted half-breed, William Weathersford, besieged a stockade in which the inhabitants of the neighborhood had taken refuge. The men and women fought together here for many hours, and large numbers of the Indians were killed, but the buildings were finally set on fire, and the Indians massacred the people as usual, not even sparing the children. Only twelve of the garrison escaped. The rest were murdered with horrible tortures.

The Southwestern States were prompt to punish these atrocities. The legislature of Tennessee appropriated three hundred thousand dollars for the campaign, and placed Andrew Jackson at the head of five thousand men. These men were composed largely of Western

pioneers, well mounted, used to forest fighting, and capable of great endurance. Among them were Sam Houston and Davy Crockett, men which every American schoolboy counts among his heroes. Jackson built Fort Deposit, on the Tennessee, as a depot for supplies, and foraged the country thoroughly, burning every Indian village in his way. The Indians were first met at the little village which occupied the site of the present Jacksonville. The American detachment consisted of one thousand mounted men, who gave the Indians no quarter, killing every one of them, and taking the squaws and children prisoners. In a later encounter they killed three hundred out of one thousand of the enemy. At this time a force of about fifteen hundred came from Georgia, while from the West came another force, so that the Creeks had enemies upon three sides of them. The Western men, under General F. S. Claiborne, discovered a town of refuge on the Alabama. This was built on holy ground, and no path led to it. In it were the women, children and the prophets. When Claiborne broke in upon their religious rites, he found captives bound to stakes ready to be burned. Claiborne sacked and burned the town. By this time winter had closed in, and the short enlistments of the men were expiring, and therefore the operations for the year were closed.

Along the sea-board, America had met with continued disasters through the year of 1813. Early in the spring a blockade had been declared from Montauk Point, on the eastern extremity of Long Island, to the mouth of the Mississippi. It was true that the British squadron was not sufficient to guard such a vast extent of coast, but it was well able to seriously interfere with commerce, and harass the people of the towns. Admiral Cockburn was especially dreaded for his cruelties. Along the shores of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina, he waged an unsoldierly warfare upon the quiet people of the villages and farms. His brutal sailors, half intoxicated, were allowed to overrun the country, robbing, burning, and committing every outrage which their ungoverned viciousness prompted. Cockburn's men enticed away slaves and sold them in the West Indies. But their destruction and appropriation of property were the least of their offences.

In the course of the year Congress authorized the building of four ships of the line, six frigates, six sloops of war, and as many vessels as might be necessary for operation on the lakes. Besides these, a large number of privateers were commissioned, and did some excellent service. One of the most notable of the engagements between privateers was between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*. This happened before

Perry's victory on Lake Erie, and, indeed, the vessel which Perry fought in was the *Lawrence*, named after the gallant commander of the *Chesapeake*, and on Perry's flag were the last words of Captain Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship." The fight between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake* took place in Boston Bay, and the American vessel was so injured that she became unmanageable. The enemy swarmed upon the decks and poured a terrible fire down the hatchways, and after an engagement of fifteen minutes the ship was theirs, and though the fight had been so brief, the *Chesapeake* had forty-eight killed and nearly one hundred wounded, and the *Shannon* twenty-three killed and over fifty wounded. Another naval engagement with a pathetic ending was that of the brig *Enterprise*, and the English brig *Boxer*. The *Boxer* surrendered after a fight of three-quarters of an hour, off the coast of Maine. Both captains were killed and buried side by side in Portland. There is an exciting little story told of the fishing smack *Yankee*, which had forty well-armed men concealed below, but showed on deck only three men, a calf, a sheep, and a goose. After sailing out of New York she met with a British sloop of war, the *Eagle*, which was in want of provisions, and as the Yankees drew along side, her forty men sprang on board the sloop of war, killed a number of the crew, drove the rest below, and took possession, sailing up the bay with their prize. Thousands cheered them from the battery, where they were celebrating the anniversary of American independence. Perhaps it is better to leave untold histories like that of the American brig *Argus*, which captured an English merchantman laden with wine, to which the crew were allowed to help themselves till they were all drunk. They then set the prize on fire, and by this brilliant light they were seen by the English brig *Palatine*, which bore down upon the *Argus* and captured her. One disaster which greatly disheartened the people was the defeat of Decatur, whose squadron was driven into New London and kept there by the larger force of the blockaders, so that none of these ships got to sea again while the war lasted. The Connecticut militia gathered upon the shores in such numbers that it was impossible for the English to capture them. But Decatur and his officers fretted under the idleness and made more than one attempt to break through the line of the enemy's ships. When they failed in these attempts they complained that there were traitors on shore, who warned the ships outside of their movements by burning blue lights. This the people of Connecticut stoutly denied, but as they belonged to the party which was opposed to the war, they were not believed,

although their militia stood staunchly by Decatur's fleet week in and week out. It is possible, and even probable, that upon occasions these blue lights were burned by some traitor on shore, but it was the grossest injustice to accuse the loyal people of Connecticut of this. It was a time, however, of great political hatred, and the Federalists were always afterward called the "Blue Lights."

As the year 1814 opened, the outlook for American success was dark. Napoleon's power had been broken, and an act was passed to increase the regular army to sixty-six thousand men. It was evident that if England chose, she could overrun the country with veteran troops. But negotiations for peace now began. It was decided that these should be conducted at Gottenburg. John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell and Albert Gallatin were appointed commissioners and instructed to insist that in the future there should be no search or impressment by English naval commanders upon American vessels, but to offer to exclude British seamen from American vessels and to surrender deserters. This was practically yielding up the cause for which the war had been fought, for had this arrangement been made at the outset there could have been little excuse for war. While these matters were under slow consideration, preparations for the campaign of the coming year, 1814, were continued.

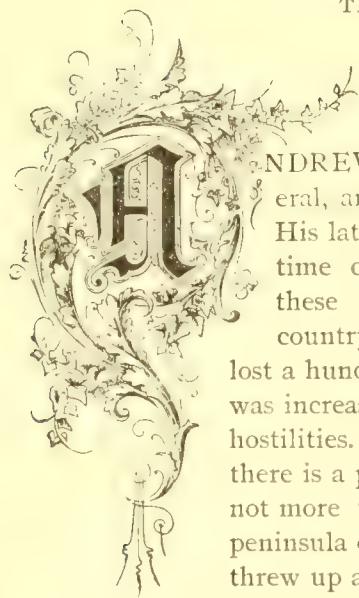
FOR FURTHER READING

BIOGRAPHY—Abbott's "Life and Adventures of Davy Crockett."
"Life of Sam Houston."

CHAPTER LXXVII.

A Country Without a Capital.

JACKSON'S CAMPAIGN AMONG THE CREEKS—DISCOURAGEMENTS ON
THE NORTHERN FRONTIER—THE BATTLE OF LUNDY'S
LANE—THE WAR ON THE SEA-COAST FOR 1814—
THE CAPTURE AND DESTRUCTION OF THE
CITY OF WASHINGTON—VICISSITUDES
AT THE SOUTH—THE BAT-
TLE OF NEW OR-
LEANS.



ANDREW JACKSON had been made Major-General, and commanded nine hundred raw recruits. His late army had gone home at the end of their time of service, in spite of his prayers. With these inexperienced men he marched into the country of the Creeks, fought two battles, and lost a hundred soldiers. Shortly after this, his army was increased to five thousand men, and he renewed hostilities. At Horseshoe Bend, in the Tallapoosa, there is a peninsula of one hundred acres, with a neck not more than five hundred feet wide. Upon this peninsula one thousand Creek warriors encamped, and threw up a rude breastwork across the neck. Jackson marched with nearly three thousand men against this defence, sending a detachment of mounted men and friendly Indians to the enemy's rear. After cannonading without effect upon the breastwork for two hours, Jackson saw smoke arising in the rear and knew that his detachment had reached the Indian village and fired it. He then ordered his men to storm the works, and they fought hand-to-hand with their enemies through the loop-holes for a while, then leaped the defence, and charged with the bayonet. It was seldom that an Indian asked for quarter. His idea of warfare was to

kill or be killed, and he did not complain when luck was against him. The Americans shot down the Indians as they ran to hide themselves in the thickets, or to swim the stream, and thus for a time the Creeks were checked.

Not so encouraging was the reopening of affairs in the North. Wilkinson's military career was ended in the beginning of the year by two military disasters. The Secretary of War still wished to invade Canada by the river St. Lawrence, and to do this, proposed to take Kingston. To conceal this movement and to make sure that no enemy was left in the rear, Major-General Brown was ordered to commence operations on the peninsula between Erie and Ontario. On July 2d he compelled the surrender of Fort Erie. On the 5th he was unexpectedly forced into a battle, in which the British retreated, and the Indians, disgusted at their defeat, all deserted them. Brown felt it to be safe, after this success, to move upon Kingston along the lake shore, and asked for the co-operation of Chauncey's fleet, assuring that admiral that Canada could now be taken without difficulty. But this co-operation Chauncey did not give him, and Brown was forced to turn back, upon learning that the English general, Riall, with large reinforcements, was at Queenstown. Winfield Scott, now a brigadier-general, was sent forward with a corps of observation, and as his troops came into an open space looking upon Lundy's Lane, nearly opposite Niagara Falls, they were met by the entire British force drawn up in line of battle. Scott at once sent detachments to turn the wing of the enemy and succeeded in capturing a large number of prisoners. General Brown was soon on the ground with reinforcements, and he saw that the great strength of the British lay in their centers, where they had seven guns planted upon a low hill. Colonel James Miller was ordered to take this battery, and modestly answering, "I will try, sir," he put his men in motion and ordered them to move cautiously through the dusk—for it was after sunset. The men crept along the ground up to a fence, and when their commander whispered the order, they shot every man at the guns, and rushed forward in the face of a sharp fire and captured them. The British made two determined efforts to retake the battery but failed, and as the darkness deepened they retired. The battle of Lundy's Lane was not a decisive one, but it was one of the hardest ever fought. Of the two thousand Americans engaged, seven hundred and forty-three were killed or wounded, and of the four thousand British, eight hundred and seventy-eight. General Winfield Scott was so severely wounded that he could not serve during the rest of the



INDIAN HUT IN THE TREE-TOP

war, and General Brown for some time was obliged to leave the command in other hands. In the meantime General Edward Gaines was given command of the American troops, and conducted a defense

against a midnight assault, on August 10th, with great success, the English losing nearly a thousand men.

The Americans were besieged in Fort Erie and the English brought their parallels so close that showers of hot shot were thrown into the fort. One of these disabled General Gaines, and Brown, though still far from well, assumed command. On December 17th, a sudden sortie with two thousand men was made by the Americans, overwhelming the besiegers, dismounting the guns and destroying the works. In this the Americans lost five hundred men and the British nine hundred. The siege was then abandoned, and in October the Americans destroyed Fort Erie and returned to their own shore.

In spite of these successes the Americans had gained but little. Two thousand of their men had been buried on Canadian soil. It had been proved that the Americans had not quite forgotten how to fight, but nothing had been gained which was of permanent value to the country. As the summer closed, both parties stood on the defensive on their own side of the border. Sir George Prevost made an attempt to invade New York as far as Crown Point, on the old path over which so many warlike expeditions had moved, but this attempt was unsuccessful, and Prevost abandoned his plan.

On the sea-coast the war had been one signal disaster. The blockading squadron was increased and the American vessels kept well in shore, while depredations upon the coast were frequent and vicious. The valley of the Penobscot was seized as a conquered province, being invaded by General Pilkington, who met with no defense except that which a half-armed and thoroughly frightened militia could give.

In August, the English fleet appeared off Stonington, Connecticut, and gave the inhabitants one hour to remove the women and children. The little village was then bombarded steadily for three days, and into it was thrown fifty tons of iron and solid shot, bombshells, etc. There were only about a score of men to defend the town, and these mounted three old guns and handled them so well that they kept the enemy from landing, and inflicted a loss upon them of seventy men killed or wounded. Seven of the defendants were wounded, but none killed.

Shortly after this, occurred that episode of which the Americans are perhaps more ashamed than of anything else in their national history. In August of 1814 General Ross, with thirty-five hundred men, the finest regiments of Wellington's army, appeared in the Chesapeake and was here reinforced by one thousand marines from Cockburn's blockading squadron. The whole force was landed about forty miles below

Washington. President Madison and the Senate had been warned again and again of the purpose of Ross' expedition, but the war party refused to believe or listen, and when the English appeared upon the coast, but slight defense was possible. Brigadier-General William Winder had been placed in command of five hundred regulars, a few weeks before, with the assurance that two thousand militia would respond to his orders. But no effort was made to put this little force in condition to take the field. When Ross made his undisputed arrival, he could hardly believe that the way had thus been left open to him. He moved on cautiously, and at length met Winder, whose militia, at the firing of the first English rockets, fled to Washington. The President and his Cabinet had their personal safety more at heart than any other matter, and set the example by getting away with as much haste as possible. The only honest defense which the British met with was from a small band of seamen and marines, commanded by Commodore Barney and Captain Miller. When these men, six hundred in number, were obliged to retreat, they left six hundred dead Englishmen behind them to show that every man had done his duty. As the British entered Washington the Americans set fire to their own navy yard, forgetting that the English could do no worse should they take it. The invaders burned every public office in Washington except the patent office, which was spared because of the assurance that it contained nothing but private property and models of the arts, which were of general use to the world. Admiral Cockburn, leaping into the speaker's chair as his followers entered the halls of Congress, cried out: "Shall this harbor of Yankee democracy be burned? All for it say, aye." The public libraries were also burned, and the next night the invaders crept quietly away, expecting to be severely punished for their depredations—a suspicion which was a compliment to the Americans not deserved by them.

The British were almost as bewildered as gratified by a success so extraordinary, and they hastened to send an expedition against Baltimore. The citizens of that city were warned in time, and put up fortifications, calling out all of the available troops to repel the invasion. When Ross landed at the head of his advance, he was picked off by a sharpshooter and carried to his boat, where he died in a few minutes. The three thousand volunteers, under General John Sticker, withstood the enemy for three hours, and then fell back upon the intrenchments. The following day they were reinforced, and the British quietly retreated in the night. In the meanwhile, sixteen vessels moved up the bay and opened fire upon the defences of Baltimore. For twenty-four hours

they poured a continuous stream of rockets and shells into the forts, and at night sent a strong force to attack them in the rear. But this was discovered and dispersed by a fire of red-hot shot, and the fleet retired. There were four notable battles on the ocean during the year, in three of which the Americans were successful. These only showed, by contrast, how disgraceful was the fight upon shore. The effort to make a conquest of Canada was as far from accomplishment as at the beginning. The Federalists were not slow to point out the weak-



THE FORT AT PENSACOLA

ness of the Administration, and to dilate upon the great injury which it was doing to the country, and to the commercial States in particular. The cost of the war was but a small item compared with the loss which the people of New England sustained from the crushing of their trade. There were serious thoughts of forming a Northern Confederacy, not for the purpose of disbanding the Union, but that it might not be tyrannized over by a faction whose policy was so disastrous. It was questioned by great statesmen whether the Union had not been a failure,

and a convention, having representatives from all the Northern States, met at Hartford, for the purpose of considering the new Constitution, or of making amendments to the old one which should prevent such evils as they were then suffering from. Massachusetts was particularly anxious that the legislative powers of the people should rest upon a different basis, and that the number of representatives should depend upon the population, but nothing definite was done at the convention.

In the meantime, the British force had taken possession of the Spanish town of Pensacola, in Florida, and used it as a station to fit out expeditions against Mobile and New Orleans. Here they equipped the Indians for war, and attempted to drill them. Jackson received fresh troops from Tennessee and Kentucky, and marched southward to meet this new invasion. The British attacked Fort Bowyer, at Mobile, in September, but were repulsed. They blew up the fort at Pensacola in November, when they heard that Jackson was approaching, and left him to take undisputed possession of the town.

Jackson now hastened to New Orleans and made preparations to defend that port, the loss of which would give the English the command of the Mississippi. Jackson was in his element, for he was never better pleased than when encountering difficulties. He made up his lack of men by enrolling convicts, appealing to the free negroes and calling out the militia. He proclaimed martial law through the city, built intrenchments, and considered every possibility and exigency which might arise. The British landed twenty-four hundred men nine miles below the city, and Jackson went down to meet them with about two thousand men. It was on the 23d of December, when the days were short, and night was closing before he reached the enemy, so that the attack had to be made after dark. The armies became intermingled and the fights were largely hand-to-hand. When the Americans withdrew to their fortifications, after two hours of fighting, each side had lost more than two hundred men. Almost immediately after the action the British troops received large reinforcements, and among them was General Sir Edward Pakenham, brother-in-law to the Duke of Wellington, who was to take the chief command. The situation of his armies seemed to him unfortunate. They were on a narrow strip of low land, bounded on one side by a broad river and on the other by a morass. The enemy in front, of unknown numbers, were behind fortifications. Two American vessels in the river harassed the camp day and night, and the weather was causing sickness among the men. Pakenham brought some guns across the peninsula, destroyed one

American vessel with hot-shot and drove the other up stream. He then erected bastions of hogsheads of sugar, behind which he mounted thirty guns, and opened the year 1815 with this warlike action. Jackson, on his part, used cotton bales for his bastion, and before these were knocked out of place and set on fire, had constructed good earthworks a mile and a half in the rear. Both sides were reinforced during the week that followed, and both generals laid excellent plans of procedure.

On the 8th of January the English opened an attack, advancing in two columns, and preceded by regiments bearing ladders and fascines. Between them marched a thousand Highlanders, to support an attack on both wings. But Jackson's men were those of the West and South, who, as riflemen, have never been excelled, and their aim was unerring. The artillery was handled with precision, and in the first discharge from the thirty-two-pounder, the entire van of one of the British columns was swept away. In attempting to reform his men, Pakenham was killed, two other generals were seriously wounded, and the commander of the Highland regiment was shot dead. In twenty-five minutes the action was over, and the British found that they had lost seven hundred killed, fourteen hundred wounded and five hundred prisoners, while the American loss was but seventeen. Such a brilliant success as this might well have raised the confidence of the American people, but at this time news was received that peace had been concluded at Ghent, on the 24th of December, two weeks before the battle of New Orleans.

FOR FURTHER READING:

BIOGRAPHY—Parton's "Life of Jackson."

FICTION—Grieg's "The Sebalton."

J. H. Ingraham's "Lafitte."

G. W. Cable's "Grandis-ines."

G. W. Cable's "Old Creole Days."

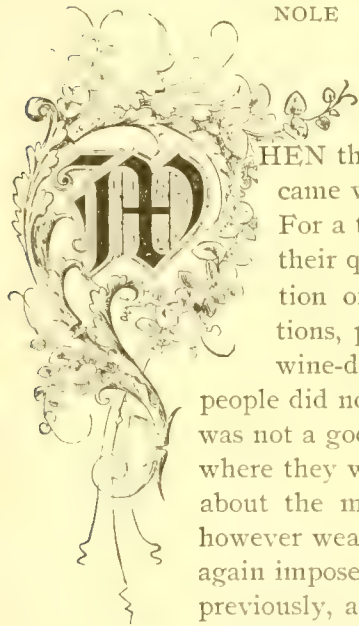
G. C. Eggleston's "Captain Dain."

POETRY—Francis Scott Key's "The Star Spangled Banner."

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

A Transient Amiability.

THE ERA OF GOOD FEELING—WAR WITH ALGIERS—FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY—THE FIRST SEMI-NOLE WAR—THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE.



WHEN the Treaty of Peace was at last ratified, there came what is known as "the era of good feeling." For a time the political parties were glad to forget their quarrels and rejoice together over the restoration of peace. Everywhere there were celebrations, public dinners, congratulatory speeches and wine-drinking. In the general rejoicing, the people did not much concern themselves that the treaty was not a good one, and that it left matters practically where they were before the war. Those who thought about the matter doubtless consoled themselves that, however weak the treaty was, England would not soon again impose upon American vessels as she had done previously, and that she would stand in wholesome fear of the resistance with which any presumptuous step on her part would be met.

There was one other question of foreign difficulty to be settled, and that was with Algiers. The Dey of Algiers was dissatisfied with the measure of the usual tribute. He declared war against the United States and renewed his depredations upon American commerce. Early in the spring of 1815, Decatur, his old enemy, was sent with a squadron of nine vessels to the Mediterranean. In June, he captured an Algerian frigate and a brig of twenty-two guns. He then anchored his whole squadron in the harbor of Algiers and demanded immediate negotiations for a treaty. To conduct these negotiations the Dey came on board Decatur's ship and begged that there might be a continuation of tribute, if only of a little powder, for form's sake. The Dey knew that should

the United States refuse to pay tribute, all of the nations would follow the example, and the Barbary States would no longer receive a large portion of their wealth from these sources. "If you insist on receiving powder as tribute," said Decatur, "you must expect to receive balls with it." The Dey yielded, and a treaty was concluded with Algiers, followed by others with Tunis and Tripoli. Thus the United States, the youngest of all the nations, was the first to put an end to that surprising submission to the piratical Barbary States.

As might be expected, the country was in the worst of financial conditions, and the immediate measures of the Secretary of the Treasury and of Congress were for the purpose of bettering commercial affairs. A new national bank was chartered, with a capital of thirty-five million dollars, and duties were raised on imports to such an extent that they amounted almost to prohibition. The Democrats, or the Southern element, were in favor of this policy which protected their great staple, cotton, but the men of New England opposed it, since it ruined the carrying trade, which was their great source of profit, and which the war had deprived them of for the last four years. The free-trade party was led by Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, and the tariff party by John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina. All the flourishing sea-ports of New England, from Portsmouth to Long Island Sound, received at this time a blow from which they never recovered.

As another presidential election neared, the power of the Federal party continued to wane until it was quite annihilated. James Monroe, of Virginia, was made President in 1817. He had fought in the Revolutionary War, and had been Secretary of State under Madison. Though an amiable man, he had but little strength of character, and was not well calculated to manage the affairs of State. He was not well established, when he was called upon to consider some serious matters on the southern frontier. For a short time it looked as if America might once more be plunged in war, and this time with Spain, as well as England. Florida, which was still a Spanish province, was the home of the Seminole Indians, and these savages had for many years offered protection to the slaves who sought it. It will be remembered that many years before there had been an insurrection among the slaves of South Carolina and Georgia, and that they had fled into Florida. There had been three generations of people since that time, but the slave-holders of the States mentioned could never forget that within a short distance of them were hundreds of people who were their property. When, therefore, there was any war with the Indians

of Florida, it was always practically a slave hunt, and both the Spaniards and Seminoles were quick to aid in repulsing such movement.

When the British army left Florida, in 1814, a colonel by the name of Nichols remained in Florida, and having much sympathy for the Indians, he built a fort for them on the Appalachicola, near its mouth. This he supplied with large quantities of arms and ammunition, and returned to England, leaving the fort in the hands of the Seminoles. It soon passed from their hands into those of the negro refugees. General Edmund P. Gaines, who had charge of the southern frontier, continually complained of this "negro fort," and united with Georgia in urging the Federal government to war. There was no question but that the fort was an excellent place of refuge for any overburdened slaves who found a chance to escape from the lash of the overseer, and as the slave-holders believed that the Federal government was framed for the purpose of protecting their interests, and that their chief duties lay in that direction, it is not strange that the Southern States should assume the government to be willing to take up arms for the purpose of recovering these unfortunates.

In July, 1816, a detachment of Americans was sent to attack this fort, and some red-hot shot entered the magazine, where nearly eight hundred barrels of gunpowder were stored. The fort was laid in ruins instantly, and two hundred and seventy of the three hundred and thirty-four inmates killed outright, most of the others dying from their wounds soon after. The inmates were negroes and Indians, of both sexes and all ages. An Indian chief and the negro commander were among those who were not killed by the explosion, and these were tortured to death after the Indian manner. It is not surprising that in the year that followed, the settlers were murdered, and the settlements robbed. The wonder is rather that the retaliations were not more numerous. The Seminole chiefs warned the American soldiers not to cross the Flint river, saying that the land beyond was theirs, and that they should protect it by every means in their power. General Gaines did not regard this warning, and marched upon the Seminole village, burning it to the ground. The Seminoles took to the forest and waited. A few days later a boat passed down the river carrying forty soldiers, with some women and children. The Indians, concealed upon the bank, killed every one of these except four men, who swam to the shore, and one woman, who was kept in captivity by a chief.

The command in this border war was now given to Andrew Jackson. Jackson paid no attention to the orders given him to call upon

the militia of the border States through their governments, but raised a volunteer force among his old companions-in-arms in Tennessee—all of them magnificent fighters, and men who worshiped Andrew Jackson as the hero of his country. On the site of the negro fort he built and garrisoned another, which he called Fort Gadsden. From here he advanced toward the Bay of St. Marks, driving away without difficulty the few Seminoles who tried to intercept him. The Spanish Governor of the fort at St. Marks could not make a defense, and Jackson marched in on the 7th of April, hauled down the Spanish flag and raised the American in its place. A few days before, an American armed vessel had sailed up the bay, ran up English colors, and thus enticed on board two well-known Seminole chiefs who were supposed to have been the leaders in the recent massacre. They were brought on shore and hung by Jackson's orders. A strong garrison was left at St. Marks and the march was resumed. Jackson wished to march upon and surprise the Indian town Suwannee, which was said to be a place of resort for negro refugees. Jackson was too late, however, for when he reached the village he found it deserted.

At about this time occurred one of those incidents which showed Andrew Jackson's inflexible and iron nature. At St. Marks he had taken prisoner a Scotchman named Alexander Arbuthnot, who was a trader with the Indians. He had a depot of goods near Suwannee, and from his writing to his son to remove the goods to a place of safety, the Indians were warned of the advance of the Americans. On this account Jackson chose to look upon him as a spy. At Suwannee, Robert C. Ambrister, an officer of the English army, who had been suspended from duty for a year on account of fighting a duel, got into the American camp by mistake. It had been his intention to join the Indians. He was therefore kept as a prisoner of war. Both these men were sentenced to death. Arbuthnot was hanged and Ambrister shot. These executions were against all law and entirely without justification. Upon Jackson's previous campaign he had caused six militiamen to be shot, because they claimed that their terms of enlistment had expired, and that they should return to their homes. The men were honest in their claim, and were entirely innocent of any intention to offend.

When Jackson reached Fort Gadsden upon his return, he was met with a protest against this invasion of Spanish territory from the Government of Pensacola. He promptly turned back, reoccupied Pensacola and took the fort to which the Governor had fled. It is said that he afterwards regretted that he did not hang the Governor. Jackson

tried afterwards to shift the responsibility of all these aggressions upon the shoulders of Monroe, but it is not rightly known where the greater part of the blame should be put. It was not Andrew Jackson's habit to ask permission of any one to do what he considered his duty. Negotiations for a treaty with Spain were being conducted in Washington, and in February, 1819, they were concluded. The Floridas were ceded to the United States for the sum of five million dollars.

The breach between the Southern and the Northern States was widening. The value of slave labor rose as the new lands on the lower Mississippi opened fresh fields for cultivation. Slave-raising had become a science, and it was concluded by the economists that it was better to use up a gang of negroes in seven years and supply their places by new purchases, than to attempt to prolong the lives of the gang in hand by moderate labor. The invention of the cotton gin had also greatly increased the value of slaves, for two hundred pounds of fibre could be freed of seeds in a single day by the gin. As it was difficult to overstock the market with this produce, thus it became almost impossible to overstock the plantations with slaves. There was nothing the slave-holders so much dreaded as legislative interference, and it was their constant ambition to keep a man in the presidential chair who should look after the interests of this wicked traffic, and see to it that the Northern States did not get in the ascendancy. To do this it was necessary that they should insist that as many slave States were included in the Union as free States. Thus, after Indiana, came Mississippi, in 1817, a free State and a slave State. After Illinois, 1818, came Alabama, 1819, a free State and a slave State. In March, 1818, the citizens of Missouri asked permission of Congress to form a State constitution, and to be admitted into the Union. Missouri lay beyond that district where slavery had existed up to this time, and Congress, and indeed the whole country, was divided upon the question as to whether Missouri should be a slave State or not. In admitting the other slave States to the Union, Congress had not instituted slavery, but only allowed it to exist. Should the government conclude to permit slavery in Missouri, it would be giving official encouragement to it. When a formal bill was entered in February, 1819, for the admission of Missouri, a New York Congressman proposed, as a condition of admission, that from that moment there should be no personal servitude within the State except of those already held as slaves, and that these should be freed within a short time. The South met this proposition with defiance and the haughtiest indignation. The North was threatened with terrible pun-

ishment for her interference with the States of the South. Even as the question was being discussed a slave-coffle passed the Capitol, the men being bound together with chains and the women and children walking behind under the lash of a slave-driver. But this degrading sight served no other purpose than to point the paragraph of an eloquent Senator. For many weeks the debate went on passionately, and finally, when Maine asked for admission into the Union, the Southern men protested that she could only be admitted on the condition that Missouri was allowed to come in as a slave State. Had not some of the Northern men gone over to the side of the South, slavery might have been kept out of Missouri, but at last the Southern faction grew so strong that it became necessary to accept a compromise, which is known as the Missouri Compromise, in which slavery was prohibited in all that portion of the Louisiana purchase lying north of 35° , $30'$, excepting Missouri. This compromise was only carried by much trickery, and what little good there was in the compromise was taken out of it by the President and the Cabinet. When the bill was brought to the President he asked two questions. First, whether Congress had a constitutional right to prohibit slavery in a territory. The Cabinet were all agreed that Congress had such a right. Second, he wished to know if the section prohibiting slavery "forever," referred only to the territorial condition or whether it also applied when the Territory became a State. With the exception of John Quincy Adams, the Cabinet claimed that this referred only to the Territory, and that when any of these Territories became States, they could admit slaves, should they choose to do so. In the next session of Congress a bill was passed preventing free negroes and mulattoes from settling in Missouri under any pretext whatever. In short, negroes in Missouri were to have no rights—they were not under any circumstances citizens. Thus did the Federal government make itself responsible for slavery, and aided in its establishment where it had not previously existed. From this time forward the fight between slavery and freedom was an open one.

FOR FURTHER READING

FICTION—Leah Smith's "Major Jack Downing,"
Hall's "Legends of the West,"
W. G. Simms' "Guy Rivers,"
W. G. Simms' "Richard Hurdiss."

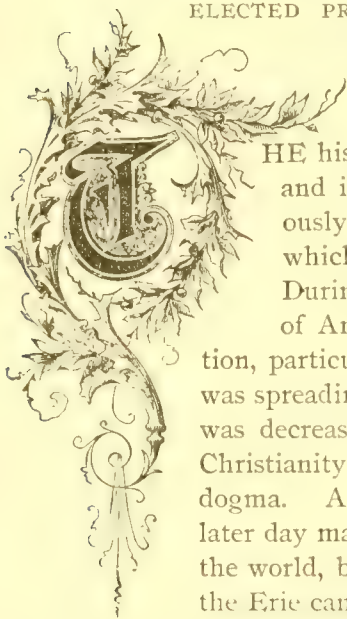


FALL OF TABLE ROCK.

CHAPTER LXXIX.

The Second Adams.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION—ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY OF JOHN
QUINCY ADAMS—THE ASSERTION OF STATE SUPREMACY IN
GEORGIA — TARIFF DISPUTES — ANDREW JACKSON
ELECTED PRESIDENT — THE FINANCIAL
CRISIS OF 1837.



THE history of a nation is not confined to its wars and its disasters. These, though they may seriously disturb, cannot uproot the home life in which the seed of the growth and evolution lies. During Monroe's administration the civilization of America was becoming more profound. Education, particularly in the Northern and Western States, was spreading rapidly. The power of church doctrine was decreasing and in its place was springing up a Christianity in which there was more kindliness than dogma. Already that private enterprise, which at a later day made America the most convenient country in the world, began to show itself. DeWitt Clinton dug the Erie canal, three hundred and sixty-three miles long, connecting Lake Erie and all the upper lakes with the tide-waters of the Atlantic. Noah himself, when he built his ark, could hardly have met with more ridicule than did Clinton when he began this great task. The first spadeful of earth was turned on the 4th of July, 1817, and in October, 1825, the largest canal in the world was opened for traffic. It ran through a rich and fertile wilderness—a wilderness soon broken by the building up of many towns upon the banks of the canal. Its original cost was seven million six hundred thousand dollars.

Steamboats were gradually coming into favor. In 1818 the steamer *Walk-in-the-water* ran regularly to Detroit from the eastern extremity of Lake Erie. In 1819 the first passage on a steamboat was made across

the Atlantic. This was by the ship *Savannah*, owned and commanded by Moses Rogers, of New London, Connecticut. He went from New York to Savannah, from Savannah to Liverpool, and then up the Baltic to St. Petersburg. He used both sails and wheels, depending on his sails when the wind was favorable. When the ship appeared off the coast of Ireland, she was supposed to be on fire, and a cruiser was sent out from Cork to offer her relief. Congress was too busy attending to political affairs to give any recognition to enterprise so remarkable, and the attempt was not repeated for twenty years.

At the close of Monroe's second term of office, many candidates for the presidential chair were before the people. The Federal party had been crushed out and the Democratic party was in power. New ideas were giving birth to new parties, but at this time it was hardly apparent what form they would take. Throughout the North and the West, however, there was a firm determination to put an end to Virginia supremacy. For twenty-four years the office of President had been held by men from Virginia, and the affairs of the entire nation had been made subservient to those of the South. Monroe was almost lost sight of in the midst of the controversies and agitations of the time. His long and honorable service for his country had not won for him the consideration and deference which it should. His yielding disposition had made him seem contemptible, although he was a man of calm judgment and undeniable patriotism. In his last message to Congress he fortunately gave voice to what is known as the Monroe Doctrine, and to this, more than anything else, is he indebted for the preservation of his name from oblivion. This message expressed great interest in the young South American States, some of which the King of Spain was attempting to force into a colonial condition. President Monroe declared that should any European power attempt to interfere in American affairs or to deprive any country on the Western continent of its liberty, it would be considered as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. Monroe also said that henceforth the American continents were not to be considered as subjects for colonization in the future by any European power, meaning that hereafter no nation of the Eastern continent should have a right to usurp any territory upon either of the Americas, and that hereafter the unsettled country within the acknowledged boundaries of American States was exclusively their own, and not subject to foreign occupation.

In the presidential election which followed, John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected. All the previous Presidents had taken

part in the revolutionary war or in the founding of the government, but John Quincy Adams belonged to the generation of younger men, and was but nine years old when his father had signed the Declaration of Independence. The opposition to Adams drew together the party composed mainly of Southern slave-holders with a considerable Northern alliance. To the support of the Administration rallied all those who were opposed to a slave-holding Democratic party, and which became known as National Republicans, although they did not assume this name definitely until near the close of Adams' administration. So intensely did the Southerners fear that slavery might be interfered with, that the Senators from the slave-holding States would not even allow Congress to send representatives to a Congress of the South American States, which was to meet at Panama with the purpose of defining their relations to each other and to foreign States, political and commercial, and the expediency of a league among themselves. They objected to this for the reason that the emancipation of slaves might be, and probably would be, one of the subjects discussed, and they all agreed that it was a subject which could not with safety be talked about. They constantly preached the doctrine of State rights, and seized every opportunity to uphold that theory in the Senate. Georgia was the first of the States to give a practical illustration of what the South meant by State rights. When she became a State, one condition of the cession of her western territory to the Federal Government was, that the title to the Indian lands should be acquired by the United States and transferred to her. The Government had been unable to redeem this promise, because the Creeks and the Cherokees would not part with their lands, and had sworn to put to death any chief who should prove such a renegade to his race as to make a treaty with the United States of which they should be a part. However, in 1825, certain chiefs concluded a treaty conveying these lands to the United States, and the Creeks kept their word and put them to death. The State of Georgia then ordered a survey of the territory occupied by the Indians, but it was found that should they do this, it would involve the country in an Indian war. Besides, the treaty which had been ratified by the Senate and the President did not put the Creeks out of possession until September 1, 1826, and it still lacked over a year of the time of its fulfillment. The President, therefore, refused to consent to the survey, but the Governor of Georgia insisted upon the right of the State to do as it saw fit in such matters, and pretended to see in the decision of the President a secret hostility to slavery. The Indians appealed to Adams and the

whole case was presented to Congress, but nothing was done. The Administration consented to be quiet, and Georgia was allowed to do as she pleased. Encouraged by her success at this time, Georgia soon asserted her power in other matters and the States of the South rejoiced in her success.

There had been a time when the protective policy was identified with the Southern States, but as they saw the North constantly increasing in riches and prosperity, they concluded that the North must be reaping more than her share of the benefits which arose from the protection of commercial industries, and they therefore decided to advocate free trade measures. The North had been forced to take up industries by the very protective policy which the South had advocated, and now wished to abide by the principles of protection. Hereafter, the question of tariff became a sectional one, the North advocating protection and the South free trade. As a matter of fact, the North, with its free labor, would have succeeded under any international arrangement, while the South, with its reluctant and groveling slave labor, could hope for nothing but a succession of economical problems.

In 1828 a comprehensive tariff bill was passed, in which the protection on wool, iron, lead, hemp, distilled spirits and various other articles of general importance was increased. This was made the chief opposition to the Northern Administration.

During the closing years of Adams' administration occurred the Black Hawk War. In 1830 a treaty was made with the tribes of Sacs and Foxes by which their lands in Illinois was ceded to the United States. But they were unwilling to leave their land, and the Governor of Illinois called out a militia force to compel them to cross the Mississippi. Black Hawk, a proud and patriotic chief of the Sacs, then about sixty years old, gathered a small force of warriors and returned in March, 1832. In a short time the pioneers were harassed by having their farms laid waste and their houses burned. Not infrequently the massacre of the farmers followed. The Governor of Illinois called for volunteers, and a force of about twenty-four hundred men was soon marching after Black Hawk's band of one thousand. The chief fled, but was overtaken and defeated on the Wisconsin river. The survivors retreated northward and were again overtaken near Bad-axe river, on the left bank of the Mississippi. Here many of the Indians were shot in the water while trying to swim the stream, and others were killed on a little island where they sought refuge. Fifty prisoners were taken, most of whom were squaws and children. Black Hawk, Keokuk and

several other chiefs surrendered, and were taken to Washington to make a sad acknowledgment of their subjection.

In the presidential election of 1828 Andrew Jackson was elected by a very large majority, and when the inaugural ceremonies were performed in the following March, a larger crowd gathered in Washington from all parts of the country than had ever been seen there on a like occasion. Calhoun, who had been Vice-President under Adams, had been again chosen to act with Jackson. Jackson began his administration by removing from office all who had not been his partisans—an example which has been followed by every President since, except Cleveland. Washington made nine removals from office, John Adams nine, Jefferson thirty-nine, Madison five, Monroe nine, John Quincy Adams two, and Jackson not less than two thousand. In one week he vetoed more bills sent him by Congress than all his predecessors in office had vetoed in forty years. He was a man of such peculiar and inflexible character that his administration was invested with great interest. No one could be indifferent to him or to what he advised. No public man in America had warmer friends or more bitter enemies, and if one class exaggerated his virtues, the other doubtless exaggerated his faults. He allowed his Cabinet to disperse and Washington to divide itself into social cliques, because of his staunch defence of the wife of the Secretary of War, about whom unfortunate reports were circulated. He insisted that this woman should be recognized in society, and forced the ladies of Washington to open their doors to her. He defended her with that zeal which distinguished him in everything that he took up; not alone because her husband was a personal friend, nor entirely because it was his natural instinct to defend a woman, however undeserving, but because his own wife had been especially unfortunate, and had met with criticisms which saddened her life. If he could keep another from suffering in a similar manner what his wife had, he wished to do so. He had been married to his own wife nearly forty years, when the discovery was made that the divorce which she had obtained from a former husband was not legal. As soon as this was discovered, proper legal steps were taken and Jackson and his wife were married again. This was tortured by Jackson's enemies into a scandal, by which Jackson, one of the purest of men, suffered no less than his wife. After that wife was dead, it was not strange that Jackson should try to vindicate her case by defending that of another woman. He did this in his usual imperious and overbearing way. Washington was filled with scandals; the Cabinet was broken up; his niece, who presided over the White

House, was sent away because she would not receive the woman he was defending, and he made himself absurd with wild fits of rage in public when he saw some slight put upon her. These matters, small as they were in themselves, came to have a strong political bearing, and for the first time American politics were smirched with personal scandals.

One of the political measures which distinguished Jackson's administration was his hostility to the United States Bank. He suggested that a national bank, founded upon the credit and revenues of the government, might be devised, which would be constitutional and beneficial to the finances of the country. The United States Bank made a stubborn resistance, and gave all the reasons for its existence which its advocates could invent for it. The charter had yet five years to run, but application was made for a new one. The President's adherents in the House demanded an investigation, and a committee was appointed in which the majority approved its management. After a long discussion, a bill to renew the charter passed both Houses, but was vetoed by the President. As the two-thirds majority necessary to pass it over his veto was lacking, the measure fell through. Meanwhile, the time arrived for a new election. Clay was Jackson's competitor, and was supported by the high tariff party. The anti-Masons came into existence at this period, and they also supported Clay. This party originated in 1826. William Morgan, a Mason, had written a book which pretended to expose the secrets of the order. He was supposed to have been killed by the direction of his official superiors, and a party was formed which opposed the Masonic and all other secret orders.

Jackson had a growing popularity. The revenue during his administration had far exceeded the expenditure, and the national debt was being rapidly paid off. One reason for this was that the Democrats at that time were opposed to the expenditure of government money for internal improvements, and that Jackson had vetoed many bills favoring such measures. The West India trade had long been a matter of dispute between England and the United States. This was brought to a rather unsatisfactory adjustment before the close of Jackson's first administration and the trade was opened to Americans, but the conditions were not dignified. About this time the country was called upon to consider a peculiar problem. Its revenue was much larger than it could find any use for, and the question was, How should it be reduced? The first answer which would occur to any one was that the tariff should be reduced, but protection was a pet which could not be

driven from the arms of the American people. Mr. Clay provided a bill for the reduction of duties upon foreign products, except where they came in conflict with articles of domestic manufacture. This caused much discontent. In South Carolina, especially, it was thought that the duties imposed were altogether too favorable to Northern manufactures, and a convention was finally held in that State to plan secession from the Union. It was decided that no duty should be paid in South Carolina after a certain day, and that if the United States attempted to force such payment, then South Carolina should organize a separate government. Mr. Calhoun, the Vice-President of the United States, was to be placed at the head, and medals were made with the inscription, "John C. Calhoun, first President of the Southern Confederacy," and circulated among the people. The men devoted themselves everywhere to military drilling, and the women made palmetto cockades and prepared ensigns of State sovereignty. The palmetto was the symbol chosen for the new nation. This was called "nullification," a word which had been invented many years before by some ingenious Southern Senators.

But though President Jackson was the hero of the Southern States, he was too good a patriot to encourage them in such measures as these. He issued a proclamation announcing that "to say any State may at pleasure secede from the Union, is to say that the United States are not a nation." He denied the right of either nullification or secession, pointed out the absurdity of State sovereignty, and told the people of South Carolina that if they resisted the law, they would be put down by force of arms. He hastened to send troops to the forts of South Carolina, as well as vessels of war, placing all under the command of General Winfield Scott. But as usual, compromises were proposed in the Senate and accepted which arranged matters as South Carolina desired, and the North meekly did as she was bidden.

Another matter which caused much debate in Congress was the public lands. The sale of these was a great source of revenue, and as the price upon them was higher than that which most emigrants were willing to pay, emigration tended toward the extreme West, beyond the surveyed frontier, to settle where no immediate payment was required. The emigration from Europe straight to the Western States was very large. In 1837, it was nearly eighty thousand, but the next year it was lower. This was on account of the great financial crisis of 1837, caused largely by the existence of State banks which put afloat a larger amount of paper currency than they could carry. The only banks in

the country which did not suspend at this time were those few in which the government deposited its specie, and, indeed, some of these were involved in the ruin. Though the people were in this weakened financial condition, the treasury of the government continued to have a surplus, and it was decided that all surplus over five million dollars should be divided among the States as a loan only to be recalled at the discretion of Congress. Such a thing had never been heard of before, and it was difficult to tell how to conduct it. The manner in which it was distributed added to the irritation which already existed in the government, for the people of the North felt that far more than their rightful share had been given to the people of the South. Twenty-eight million dollars was thus given to the States, part of which spent it in public improvements, the rest dividing it among private citizens. But all of the financial affairs of the nation were conducted in a slipshod way, and the close of the year 1837 found States, as well as people, burdened with debt beyond their ability to pay. It was a period, however, when recuperation was easy. Steam was coming into general use. The first railway in America for passengers was chartered by the Maryland legislature in March, 1827. This was the Baltimore and Ohio. Not until 1829, however, did Peter Cooper, of New York, build a locomotive. By 1840, there were nearly three thousand miles of railway in the United States. Manufactories were rapidly increasing, and the woolen and cotton goods made were improving in quality. It was in 1840 that Sidney Morse, of New York, obtained a patent for his electric telegraph. The census taken in 1830, under Jackson's administration, showed a population of nearly thirteen millions. Two new States were added to the Union, Arkansas, in 1836, and Michigan, in 1837. Michigan came in as a free State, but Arkansas was dedicated to slavery.

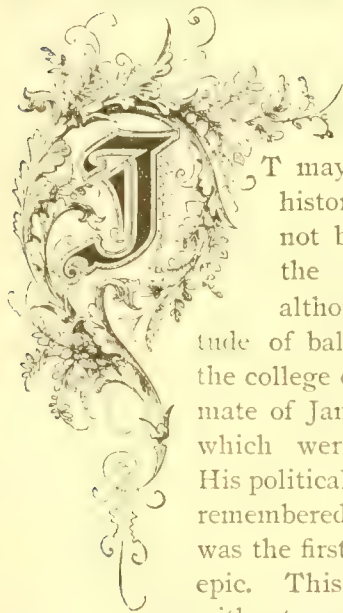
FOR FURTHER READING:

HISTORY—Black Hawk's *Life of Himself*
Moncrieff's *Men of the Backwoods.*
*FICTION—G. C. Eggleston's *"The Big Brother."*
POETRY—H. R. Schoolcraft's *"Talladega."*

CHAPTER LXXX.

Fiction and Truth.

THE LITERARY HISTORY OF THE LAST FIFTY YEARS — THE
ABOLITIONISTS.



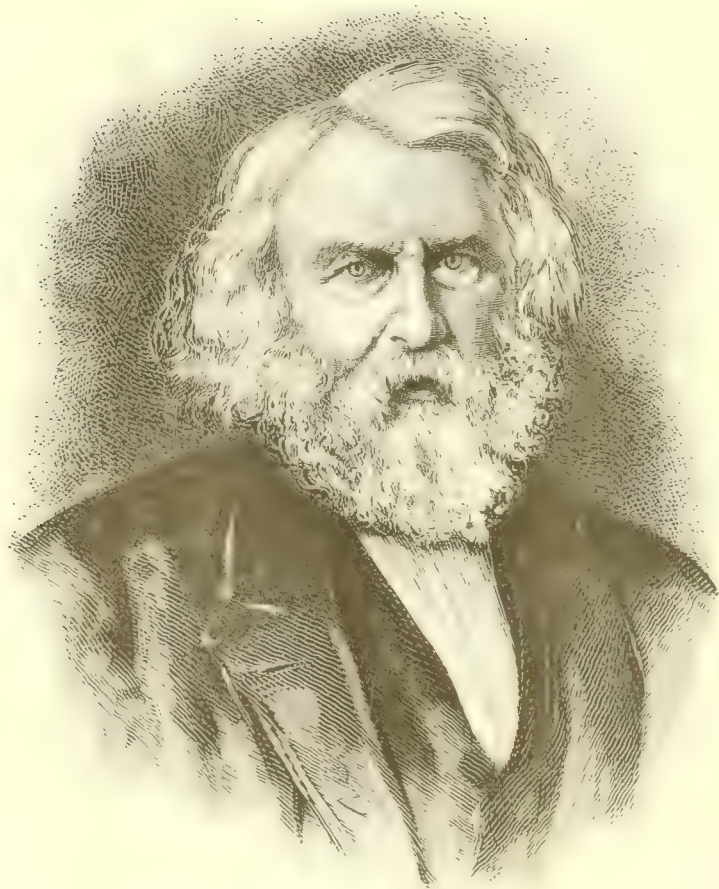
It may be wise at this period to renew the literary history of the country. Philip Freneau, a Huguenot by descent and a New Yorker by birth, was the first American poet to attain eminence, although the Revolution started into life a multitude of ballad-writers. Philip Freneau graduated at the college of New Jersey in 1771, where he was a class-mate of James Madison. He published four volumes, which were read in England as well as America. His political burlesques were popular, but are not so well remembered as his more serious poems. Joel Barlow was the first American to make an attempt at a national epic. This he termed "Columbiad." It is stately, but without grace. Dr. James McClurg, of Virginia, wrote many romantic verses of the sort usually penned in ladies' albums at that time.

Charles Brockden Brown was the first American novelist. The history of this country had been too severe to encourage fiction. In the South, there was a comparative indifference to letters, and in the North, literature took, for the most part, the form of a religious controversy. Brown's novels were gloomy, and it is for this reason that they are not better known. David Ramsay prepared some valuable books, and Jeremy Belknap wrote a history of New Hampshire, and a series of biographies. The first standard book written by a New England woman is the "History of New England," by Hannah Adams. Dr. Abel Holmes' "Annals of America" is a very valuable book. Chief Justice Marshall wrote a "Life of Washington," and William Wirt a biography of Patrick Henry. John Ledyard was the first

American traveler to write a history of his exploits. Dr. Benjamin Rush wrote voluminously about medicine. Alexander Wilson was the author of some works on ornithology; Samuel Mitchell was the first man in this country to write on chemistry; Benjamin Barton was the earliest American authority on botany, and Benjamin Thompson wrote on physics.

The theological writers of the last part of the eighteenth century and the first part of the nineteenth were very numerous. Among them were William Ellery Channing, Henry Ware, Andrew Norton, Noah Worcester, Moses Stuart and Leonard Woods. In later years came Lyman Beecher, the Alexanders, President Hopkins, Professor Edward A. Park, and many others too numerous to mention. Dr. Charles Dodge, a Philadelphian and a graduate of Princeton College, is one of the most dignified of our Calvinistic philosophers, but William Ellery Channing is undoubtedly at the head of the earlier schools of theological and metaphysical writers. Later, came a more brilliant school of theological writers. Among these were Orville Dewey, William H. Furness, John Freeman Clark, Henry W. Bellows, Andrew Peabody and William R. Alger. These were Unitarian writers. Theodore Parker, Cyrus A. Bartol, Moncure D. Conway and Octavius P. Frothingham were among the writers who started in religious work and gradually employed their pens in secular writings. Mark Hopkins, of Williams College, and Noah Porter, of Yale, are among the most distinguished of our mental scientists. Thomas C. Upham, a professor in Bowdoin, wrote a work in 1831 on the elements of mental philosophy. James Marsh, president of the University of Vermont, was an influential Transcendentalist. Lawrence P. Hiscock was a profound writer on metaphysics as a science. Francis Wayland, president of Brown University, was an excellent writer on political economy, philosophy and ethics. Taylor Lewis, a professor in Union College, was a linguist, philosopher and scientist. Each church had its staunch denominational writers, some of whom have exerted a strong influence, notably John McClintock, of the Methodists.

The "Knickerbocker writers" is a term applied to Washington Irving, James Kirk Paulding, Joseph Rodman Drake and Fitz-Green Halleck. Washington Irving was born in New York City in 1783, and absorbed there the curious life which he has so delicately and faithfully portrayed. At nineteen he wrote for a newspaper edited by his brother Peter, taking up theological and social topics, and using the name of "Jonathan Old-Style." In 1814 he visited Europe, where he



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

met Washington Allston, the first distinguished American painter. On his return to New York he started the *Salmagundi*, a name still preserved in New York to signify what is best in literature and in art. In this paper the social foibles and fads were served up in a way which was thoroughly original. A few years later, Irving gained the friendship of some distinguished Englishmen, and from this time his good fortune dated. His books sold for excellent sums, and he was the first American to make a really excellent living by his pen. Charles Brockden Brown was the only man before him to rely entirely upon the proceeds brought him by his pen. Irving's last work was his five-volumed life of Washington. James Kirke Paulding, who was five years older than Irving, worked upon the *Salmagundi* under Irving's supervision, beginning his career as a poet. In the course of his life he wrote novels, humorous sketches and pamphlets as well, his "Dutchman's Fireside" being the best known. Joseph Rodman Drake was a writer of delicate touch. He was born in 1795, and lived to be only twenty-five years old. Fitz-Green Halleck was born in Connecticut, in 1790, and lived till 1867. He wrote, among many excellent poems, that of "Marco Bozarris," known to every schoolboy. Richard Henry Dana was a scholarly poet, and Charles Sprague, a Bostonian, wrote verses of high quality. Francis Scott Key is especially known for the "Star-Spangled Banner," written during the siege of Fort McHenry, in Baltimore, during the war of 1812. There are several other writers who are famous for one poem. Samuel Wordsworth wrote "The Old Oaken Bucket;" John Howard Payne, "Home Sweet Home," and Albert G. Green "Old Grimes is Dead." William Augustus Muhlenberg is the author of that tender hymn, "I would not live always."

William Cullen Bryant, the oldest of our great American poets, was born in 1794. At ten, he was writing verses for the country papers, and by the time he was in college was already famous as a writer. He was but twenty-two years old when he wrote his celebrated poem, "Thanatopsis." This was published in the *North American Review*, in 1816. Bryant is, as everyone knows, a poet of nature, whose verses are as polished, though far less spontaneous, than those of Wordsworth. He was over seventy when he added to his extensive writings a translation of the "Illiad." This is very generally accepted as the best English Homer. Later, he published a translation of the "Odyssey."

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow and John Greenleaf Whittier were both born in 1807. Early in his manhood Longfellow took the professorship of modern languages at Bowdoin College, spending three

years in Europe to qualify himself for the position. Those three years in Europe have given us many of Longfellow's most excellent poems, although those which are most valued by Americans are the ones which preserve so accurately and tenderly the life of New England and the legends of early America. In the list of his works is a most excellent translation of the divine comedy of Dante. John Greenleaf Whittier was a writer conscientious, true and fearless, but lacked the high art of Longfellow, and the sympathetic quality, although at heart he was most sympathetic and humane. That he was a natural philanthropist and a writer fearless of consequences, there is no need to say.

Oliver Wendell Holmes was born in Cambridge, Connecticut, in 1809. Like Bryant, Longfellow and Lowell, he started out as a lawyer, but soon took up medicine, studying in Europe. He is a lyrical writer of great facility, but his prose works are more popular than his poetical ones. His "Breakfast-table Sketches" are among the American classics. Like Holmes, James Russell Lowell has written both in poetry and prose. His poems have been published in numerous volumes; some of them were elaborate and allegorical, others caustic and humorous. At one time he was the leading American critic.

Edgar Allen Poe is one of the most picturesque figures in our national literature. He was a melancholy man, who hated restraint of every sort, and who was the slave of morbid fancies and of opium. He was not the first man to rise by stress of these misfortunes to a position which more wholesome and temperate men could hardly hope to attain.

Among the painstaking, though not famous, American poets are James Gates Percival, Nathaniel P. Willis, George Morris, Edward Pinkney, Charles Fenno Hoffman and George H. Calvert. Dr. Thomas Dunn English was made famous by a single song, "Ben Bolt." George H. Boker, of Philadelphia, was one of the earliest dramatic writers of this country. C. B. Cranch was one of the most scholarly writers of his day, and Alfred B. Street is known by his poems of nature. He was also a painter. W. W. Story has joined poetry and sculpture. John G. Saxe was the earliest of our excellent American humorists. Alice and Phoebe Cary were among the first women poets. Among the best known of the early historians are Richard Hildreth, born in Massachusetts, in 1807; George Bancroft, author of the chief history of the United States, also born in Massachusetts; George Gorham Palfrey, author of a history of New England, and William Hickling Prescott, the most famous and brilliant of American historians. His "History of Ferdinand and Isabella" was translated immediately upon its

publication into five European languages. The "Conquest of Mexico," "The Conquest of Peru" and "Philip II" were not less successful. No historian has a higher reputation or a more dignified and eloquent style. John Lothrop Motley is best known for his "Rise of the Dutch Republic," and "The History of the United Netherlands." George W. Green's "Historical Review of the American Revolution" is the best record of the time.

A considerable number of travelers have won distinction as writers. Among these are Elisha Kane and Isaac Hays. James Fenimore Cooper was the first American to write novels which could be considered extensively popular. His works are thoroughly national, full of romantic interest, and embody, as no other books do, the wild, free life of the American frontier. He also wrote an able history of the United States, a series of biographies of naval officers, and an attack on the system of trial by jury.

Nathaniel Hawthorne was born in Salem, Massachusetts, in 1804. He was a morbid boy with a most studious tendency, and his surroundings were melancholy in the extreme. His mystical, elegant and romantic novels are the natural outcome of his refined and morbid disposition. He lived upon historic ground, saw the value of his associations, and embodied his ideas in tales of unequalled fantasy and power. To mention the good American writers in fiction would be a task too extensive to contemplate. Those who exercised a wide influence will be mentioned later.

The early part of the century saw some orators unequalled for their powers. The speeches of Daniel Webster, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Edward Everett, Rufus Choate, William H. Seward, Charles Sumner, Robert C. Winthrop, Wendell Philips and William Lloyd Garrison are famous. William Lloyd Garrison, in 1831, established a weekly paper in Boston called the *Liberator*. Its purpose was the immediate emancipation of the slaves, and it preached, as no other paper had ever dared to, the iniquity of slavery and the need for its speedy termination. It was not, however, the first paper of the sort ever published in the country. During General Jackson's administration a Quaker named Benjamin Lundy had begun a newspaper called the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. This urged that slaves should be gradually freed. Garrison had been the assistant editor of the paper, but the religion which he preached accepted of no compromises. He said in the first edition: "I will not equivocate; I will not excuse; I will not retreat a single inch, and I will be heard." In all the perse-

cutions, revilement and legislative rebuke which followed, he was true to his word. People who sympathized with him and upheld his views were called Abolitionists—a word which to speak even now arouses feelings of enthusiasm and deep hatred. “Fanatic” was the kindest and most considerate of all the names which these determined people were called by their enemies—and their friends were few. It was nothing new to say that slavery was wrong, and that the Republic was inconsistent in keeping a constitution which set forth the liberty and equality of all persons, and yet permitted three million persons within its borders to be deprived of their liberty.

So vigorous had Southern rule been, and so craftily had its supremacy been sustained in Congress, that it was little less than treason to speak of the possibility of manumission. The Church, both in the North and the South, was prompt to hold up the Divine authority for slavery, and to quote the Bible in its defence. As the newer Southern States were admitted to the Union and their territory opened up, slaves were brought in great numbers from the slave-breeding States of the Atlantic and placed here upon great sugar and cotton plantations. These plantations had been cultivated and stocked with negroes, on borrowed money. This money was borrowed largely from Northern capitalists, and this was one of the many reasons why the institution of slavery met with such staunch support in the North.

The Abolitionist were men and women of great independence and vigor of thought. Almost without exception they were the leaders in the communities in which they lived. Their private lives were irreproachable, their standing in all ways honorable—the fact that they had the moral courage to stand against the world is guarantee enough that they were disinterested and morally brave—but they were ostracized by the States, the Church and society as if they had been criminals or offenders against decency. They were accused of the most injudicious acts, which have never been proven against them. It was said that they tried to lash the slaves, by their eloquence, into insurrection, but the truth is that their methods were directly opposed to this, and that their appeal was made to the conscience of the slave-holder and to the legislators of the nation.

They were held responsible largely for the Southampton massacre, although probably not one of the desperate men engaged in that had ever heard of abolition, of William Lloyd Garrison or of the *Liberator*. In August, 1831, a negro slave named Nat. Turner led a little band of six men in a passionate revolt which has been dignified by the name of

insurrection. He was a man of much force of character and a natural mystic. He heard voices in the air and saw signs in the sky. Roaming at night in the forests, he saw visions and portends which pointed out his divine mission. The Bible was full of promises which he thought pointed especially to him. He believed that he was to lead his suffering people to freedom. But he was impractical and lacked executive foresight. He took but six men in his confidence, and with them started out to go from house to house and kill every white person within. Beginning at Turner's own house, they killed his master, and going on from plantation to plantation were joined by the slaves, and in forty-eight hours killed fifty-five white persons without loss to themselves. But the band finally became separated, and was attacked by two bodies of white men, who succeeded in dispersing them. Thus the insurrection was quelled at the outset. The country was searched for the offenders. Turner had escaped to the woods and lived under a pile of fence rails for six weeks, marking the passage of the dreary days on a notched stick. He was discovered and took to the wheat-fields, where he lived among the wheat stacks for ten days. Again he was discovered, but escaped and kept the whole country searching for him for some time. One day he crept from a hole beneath a felled pine tree and stood face to face with a man who had a leveled rifle in his hand. He surrendered, and one week later was hanged. Of the fifty-three other negroes formally tried, seventeen were convicted and hanged, twelve were transported and the rest acquitted.

But the fiercest retribution did not come from the law. Slaveholders held that they had a right to do as they chose with their own property, and to torture, punish, or execute at their will any negro in their possession whom they suspected of offense. The terror which spread through the South counterbalanced to a certain extent the sufferings of these poor blacks. Not a slave-holder slept securely in his bed. The consciousness of the iniquity upon which that part of the country was built and nourished made the proprietors constantly fearful. Every negro was watched with suspicion, and the most innocent actions threw the white community into terror. It was hardly believed in the South that the negro was a human being, yet it was perceived now that he was enough of a man to long for liberty, and take revenge for outrage. The people of the South virtually admitted all that the abolitionists ever claimed, and that was that the negro was a man.

In 1832, Garrison founded the New England Anti-Slavery Society. This was the parent of many like societies in different parts of the

country. To resist such agitation and to act as a sop to the morbid apprehensions of the slave-holders, President Jackson urged Congress to pass a law excluding anti-slavery publications from the mails. This bill was finally defeated, but not until the mails of the South had been examined over and over again in the search for Abolitionist pamphlets or anti-slavery expressions. Large rewards were offered in some of the slave-holding States for the apprehension of several of the leading Abolitionists. Mobs became frequent wherever the anti-slavery societies worked. A madness seemed to possess the people, and the slightest sympathy with the blacks was severely punished. One man was obliged to fly for his life in New Orleans because he offered a Bible to a slave. A doctor in Washington was thrown into prison because a package he received was accidentally wrapped in an anti-slavery paper. It was frequent diversion to burn the houses of Abolitionists, and destroy the printing office of any organ of the party. In 1836, a mob attacked a warehouse in Alton, Illinois, where a printing press was stored belonging to the Rev. E. P. Lovejoy. This was the fourth time that his printing materials had been destroyed and his paper suppressed. This time the matter was made certain by the murder of the editor. But they also succeeded in making him immortal, and he is known as one of the first martyrs of the cause of liberty. As a result of this outrage the Abolitionists won a new convert, Wendell Phillips, who, for thirty years, exercised a unique influence in the moral history of America.

Late in the year 1836, Pennsylvania Hall, in Philadelphia, was burned because it had been dedicated by an anti-slavery meeting, and the young poet Whittier had read one of his unqualified poems on freedom in it. In a few cases attempts were made to open schools for colored children in the North, but the teachers were always driven from the town, the schools destroyed and the books burned. Such acts were not the work of ruffians, but of the most dignified and influential citizens.

But nothing could stay the storm of discussion that swept over the country. Petitions by the thousand were sent to Congress, begging that it would exercise its undoubted right of abolishing slavery in the national domain which was under its exclusive control and of stopping the domestic slave trade. A handful of men, led by John Quincy Adams, fought for these petitions, but against them were all of the Southern and most of the Northern representatives. Adams stood to his principles in the midst of turmoil and disapprobation which would have silenced a weaker man. When, in 1835, William Slade asked that a petition for the abolition of slavery and the slave trade in the

District of Columbia be referred to a committee, the proposal met with an uproar in the House. The representatives from the Southern States left the House, and this was termed the secession of the Southern members. The word "secession" was cherished afterward. But the North was silenced by a compromise the next day and the Southern members consented to be appeased. Such compromises were constant, but there was a growing determination among the citizens of the North to be heard. Neither State nor Federal legislation could altogether quiet them. With the exception of a few Philadelphia Quakers, there had been, up to this period, but few men or women in the North who did not consider it his or her duty to return fugitive slaves to their masters. But the growing sympathy with the oppressed race changed this, and that curious system known as the "Underground Railway" was formed, by which fugitive slaves were helped from house to house, clothed, fed and harbored, and sent safely to Canada.

In 1841 occurred one of the many incidents relating to this period which are of such interest to the student of this question. An American slave ship, the *Creole*, sailed from Richmond with a cargo of one hundred and thirty-five slaves, gathered on the Virginia plantations. Among them was a man named Madison Washington. This man had once tasted liberty, for he had escaped to Canada, but had come back to release his wife, who was still a slave. He had been retaken and sold, and was now to be sent to a far southwest plantation where escape would be more difficult. As the *Creole* neared the Bahama Islands, Washington put himself at the head of nineteen of his fellows, whose only arms were four knives. These attacked the crew and succeeded in confining the captain and the white passengers, among whom were their owners. One slave trader was killed and several wounded. They forced the captain to take the boat into Nassau, New Providence, where all not engaged actively in the revolt were declared to be free. Washington and his eighteen companions were detained to be tried in the English courts—though practically their freedom was secured as soon as they came under the protection of England. There were some people in the North who were strong-minded enough to rejoice in the restoration to their natural freedom of one hundred and thirty-five human beings, but Calhoun, Clay and other Southern Senators denounced the English government for protecting acts which they pronounced piracy and murder.

A scene of violence took place in the House of Representatives when Joshua R. Giddings, of Ohio, offered a series of resolutions in which he

claimed that every man had a natural right in himself, and that once beyond the boundaries of the United States every slave was free. A vote of censure was passed on these resolutions by an overwhelming majority. Giddings resigned his seat, returned to Ohio, and appealed to his constituents. It was a marked sign of increasing sympathy with the anti-slavery cause that he was returned as quickly as possible by an increased majority of thousands, and from a State which a short time before had driven the teachers of negro schools beyond their borders in contumely. At this very time the Supreme Court of the United States was deciding upon the right of the recapture of fugitive slaves. What it finally decided, after much discussion, was that the law of slavery was supreme in the free, as in the slave States, and that it was the duty of every State to aid the slave-holder everywhere in recapturing the slave. Nowhere was the agitation upon the question of slavery more profound than in the churches. It was certainly a difficult nut for them to crack. The question of the marriage relation alone among the slaves was one which was quite enough to divide a church. But after all, the question was, and remained for many years, whether Africans were men and women with instincts of loyalty, purity and affection, or whether they were simply brutes, born to servitude, with no rights which the white men were bound to respect.

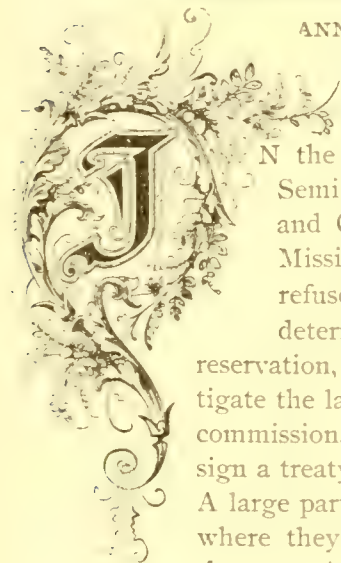
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Johnson's "Garrison and the Times."
 Tanner's "Martyrdom of Lovejoy."
 FICTION—L. Neville's "Edith Allen."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Dred."
 W. D. O'Connor's "Harrington."
 Beverly Tucker's "Partisan Leader."
 W. Adams' "The Sable Cloud."
 Holt's "Abraham Page."
 POETRY—Whittier's "Voices of Freedom."
 Marion Harland's "Judith."

CHAPTER LXXXI.

A House Divided Against Itself.

SECOND SEMINOLE WAR—ELECTION OF VAN BUREN—FINANCIAL
DEPRESSION—ELECTION OF WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON—
THE DORR REBELLION—THE MORMONS—
ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.



IN the midst of Jackson's administration came the Seminole war. The Sacs and Foxes, Chickasaws and Choctaws had all been removed west of the Mississippi, but the Seminoles, in Florida, steadily refused to move. President Jackson was equally determined that they should leave their eastern reservation, and he sent seven chiefs westward to investigate the lands designed for them. With them went a commission, whose persuasions induced the chiefs to sign a treaty, without consulting the rest of the tribe. A large part of the Seminoles were determined to stay where they were, and a young chief named Osceola, the son of a half-breed woman and an Englishman, headed the opposition. His wife was a maroon, *i. e.*, a negro born among the Indians of Florida, and she had been captured by the former mistress of her mother and held as a slave. Osceola had the natural pride and steadfastness of an Englishman, added to the fiercer Indian characteristics. He wished to avenge his wife's captivity as well as to maintain the independence of his people. Under his leadership the Seminoles declared hostilities in 1835. Major Francis L. Dade was sent out with about one hundred and forty men against Osceola, but he and his men were fired upon by an unseen foe before they reached their destination, and only two of them escaped with their lives. The United States sent out General Gaines with seven hundred men, in February, from New Orleans. They attempted to march across the Florida country. The expedition was entirely unsuccessful,

and General Scott assumed command. The Indians and negroes, meanwhile, were preying upon wagon trains and farms, and the country all about was kept in a state of terror. The summer of 1836 was very sickly, and the military posts were almost deserted. Not till autumn was any fighting done, and then the Americans failed to drive their enemies from their dark swamps. A change of commanders was tried, and Thomas S. Jessup entered upon the winter campaign with eight thousand men. The Indians retreated toward the everglades, and in February, 1837, they sued for peace. In March, the agreement to cease from war was signed at Fort Dade, the Indians stipulating that they were to remain in Florida. This the Government refused to permit, but seized seven hundred Indians and negroes, before the decision was announced to them, and sent them off to Tampa for shipment. Osceola was sent to Charleston and locked in the prison there, where he soon died of grief. But there were still many Indians and maroons hiding in the swamps and woods of Florida, and in May, 1837, General Zachary Taylor was sent out to hunt them from their places of refuge. Thirty-three blood-hounds had been imported from Cuba to track the fugitives. This plan was approved by both President Jackson and General Taylor; but, fortunately for the reputation of the United States, the blood-hounds would not track Indians, as they had only been taught to hunt negroes.

Several other commanders made ineffectual attempts to complete the subjection of these hunted creatures, and finally General William J. Worth, a man of considerable ability, was sent out in the spring of 1841 to conduct a summer campaign. Worth's troops, in small parties, went up the river and penetrated the swamps to the islands, where they destroyed the crops and the huts of the enemy. In a short time peace was secured. General Worth received the surrender of all the bands, and sent them to the west. The war had lasted seven years. Over five hundred persons had been taken from their wild, free life, and reduced to bondage. The fugitive slaves of the South no longer found an asylum in the everglades of Florida. This victory had cost the Americans forty million dollars, which was twice as much as was paid for the territories of Louisiana and Florida together. For each person reduced to slavery, the lives of three white men had been expended. But the slaveholders were satisfied. The great-grandsons of the slaves of their great-grandfathers had been returned to them, and they no longer made moan over their human property lying waste in the southern territory.

Martin Van Buren, of New York, was elected President in 1837. Like General Jackson, he was the candidate of the Democratic party. The opposition was now called the Whig party, and the chief quarrel between them was concerning State sovereignty. In this same year a rebellion broke out in Canada, and many of the people of the State bordering on Canada joined the rebellion—for there was a general sympathy in America with the insurgents. The United States made great efforts to maintain neutrality, and though it did not entirely succeed, the country had the discretion to avoid war.

The dissatisfaction with the Democratic administration was increasing. The financial troubles of 1837 spread over the country, and were laid generally to the mismanagement of the public funds and the ill-advised method of conducting the State banks. In 1840 came a political revolution. The Whig members of Congress proposed a national convention, at which a candidate for the presidency should be nominated. The canvass which followed this nomination began a new era in elections. The ratification meetings which have since become so popular were started at that time, and as the mode of travel was more convenient than it had ever been previously, they were attended by vast numbers of people. General William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, known for his soldierly qualities, was nominated as the candidate for the Whigs. He had been one of the earliest pioneers of the Far West, and some one gave him the name of the "Log-cabin Candidate." All over the country log cabins were built for political meetings. They were erected even in the midst of large cities, and the popular "mass meetings" were held in them. At the political celebrations the only drink was cider, the favorite beverage of the farmers. Ringing campaign songs were composed about the "Hero of Tippecanoe," and "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too"—John Tyler being the candidate for the vice-presidency. Never before had there been such a boisterous campaign, and an overwhelming vote was given for General Harrison, who was inaugurated President in 1841. He lived but a month after his inauguration, and Vice-President John Tyler, of Virginia, became President for the remainder of the four years.

In Rhode Island, in 1842, there was a revolt against the old colonial charter under which the State had always been governed. In this, the right of suffrage was restricted to the free-holders and their eldest sons, so that the popular representation had become very unequal. In the legislature of 1840, for instance, twenty-nine thousand of the inhabitants were represented by seventy members, and eighty thousand by thirty-

four members. It was in vain that the people appealed to the legislature to take measures for the reform of the constitution. A new constitution was formed by a popular convention in October, 1841, and accepted by the majority of voters. An election was held under it the following April, and Thomas Wilson Dorr chosen Governor. When he and the other State officers elected with him tried to assume their offices, they were resisted by those who held office under the charter, at the head of whom was Samuel W. King. Both sides took up arms and appealed to the Federal Government. The Dorr party were twice



BORDER OF GREAT SALT LAKE, UTAH

dispersed without bloodshed. Dorr was convicted of high treason and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but after three years was released and restored to full citizenship. Meanwhile the Rhode Island legislature had called a convention to draw up a constitution, and in May, 1843, a satisfactory constitution was ratified.

In New York, at about this time, there was trouble along the Hudson river, where the estates of the old Dutch patroons lay. The tenants who lived upon these estates were unwilling to pay rent to

the descendants of the early proprietors, and for a time there was armed resistance.

In Illinois, there was also much disturbance. The Mormons, or "Latter-Day Saints," had built a city named Nauvoo. At this time they had been founded fourteen years, and followed in all particulars the law which Joseph Smith, their founder, claimed to have discovered written on gold plates buried in the earth. The Mormons had first established themselves in Missouri, but were driven thence into Illinois. Here they were again assailed by mobs and forced out into the wilderness. In the midst of that wilderness they found the exquisite spot in the interior of Utah where they made their final settlement and still remain.

President Tyler soon lost his popularity. He had been accused of trying to break faith with the party which elected him. Whether this is true or not, it is certain that he broke his word with his Cabinet, and they all resigned, excepting Daniel Webster. As Webster was engaged in some important negotiations with England concerning the boundary line between Maine and New Brunswick, he felt that he owed it to the people to remain. In 1842, Mr. Webster, on the part of the United States, and Lord Ashburton, on the part of England, concluded a treaty which defined the boundary lines between New Brunswick and Maine. The line was also traced on to the Pacific Ocean, as it stands on all later maps.

When Tyler had taken his position of sympathy with the Southern States he formed a close alliance with Calhoun, the leader of the Southern party, and devoted himself for the rest of his administration to the cause of the South. As a result of this came the annexation of Texas. The Spaniards and the French had contested for Texas and established rival missions or religious settlements through it. Finally, the province of Texas revolted from Mexico and declared itself an independent State. Large American colonies had been established there and the Americans took part in its struggle for independence. The slave-holding element fixed envious eyes upon this great tract of land, which was more than twice as large as the States of New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio put together. Mr. Calhoun admitted that the object of securing Texas was to uphold the interests of slavery, extend its influence, and secure its permanent duration. The Whigs saw very clearly that if this immense tract of land was peopled with slaves and representation was determined by population, that freedom would be entirely outvoted in the Government forever. Mr. Webster's unwill-

ingness, as Secretary of State, to abet the admission of Texas caused him to be removed from office. Mr. Upshur was put in his place, but was killed soon after his appointment, and in March, 1844, Mr. Calhoun, the leader of the Southern faction, was made Secretary of State. A resolution for admission passed the United States House of Representatives February 25, 1845, and the United States Senate on March 1st. It was approved immediately by the President three days before he went out of office, and the United States assumed the Texas debt of seven and a half million dollars.

Florida was admitted as a State to the Union in 1845—the same year that James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was elected President of the United States.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Jones' "Republic of Texas."
Urquhart's "Annexation of Texas."
FICTION—Lowell's "Bigelow Papers."
Mayne Reid's "Osceola."
General Donaldson's "Sergeant Atkins."
E. C. Z. Judson's "The Volunteer."
H. Hazel's "The Light Dragoon."

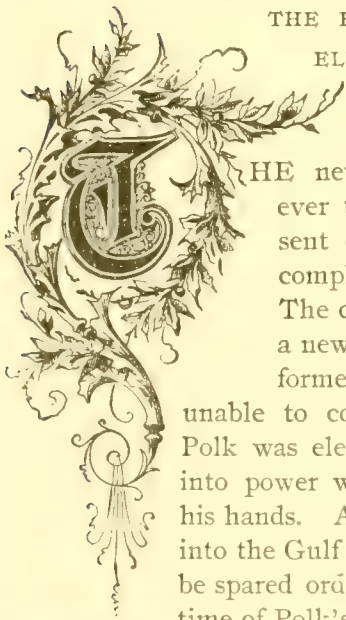


CATCHING WILD HORSES IN TEXAS.

CHAPTER LXXXII.

The Sad Plain of Monterey.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF POLK, AND THE WAR WITH MEXICO—
VARIOUS SEVERE BATTLES—CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA AND
NEW MEXICO—OCCUPATION OF THE CITY OF
MEXICO—TREATY OF PEACE—BIRTH OF
THE FREE SOIL PARTY AND
ELECTION OF TAYLOR.



THE news of Polk's election was the first report ever transmitted by telegraph in America, being sent on a line which Professor Morse had just completed between Washington and Baltimore. The combined opposition of the Whig party and a new party called the Liberty party, which was formed to resist the influence of slavery, were unable to cope with Democratic supremacy, and Mr. Polk was elected by a considerable majority. He came into power with the certainty of a war with Mexico on his hands. A strong naval force had previously been sent into the Gulf of Mexico, and all the military which could be spared ordered to the southwestern frontier. At the time of Polk's inauguration, three thousand six hundred

soldiers were at Corpus Christi, Texas, under General Zachary Taylor.

Texas was annexed by joint resolution to the United States in March, 1845, and a year later Taylor moved southward to a point on the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras. At the same time he called upon the Governors of Louisiana and Texas for five thousand volunteers, and, wishing to open communication with Point Isabel, moved eastward. The Mexican general, Arista, wished to hinder his return, and planted six thousand men across his road at Palo Alto, nine miles from Matamoras. When Taylor returned and found his way blockaded, he gave battle. He had with him some heavy guns which worked terrible

havoc in the Mexican infantry, and in the midst of the conflict the prairie grass between the two lines took fire, furnishing a thick curtain of smoke, behind which Arista drew off his men. The next morning the Mexicans took position in a deep ravine at Resaca de la Palma. This ravine was shaped like a horseshoe, and the open side was towards the advancing Americans. But notwithstanding this superior position, the Americans succeeded in capturing the enemy's artillery, and putting the infantry to flight.

On the 13th of May, before news of these events reached Washington, Congress formally declared war, and authorized the President to call for fifty thousand volunteers for one year. The mass of the people of the United States were not willing to go to war about a mere question of boundary. They were somewhat dismayed by the call for volunteers, and thought that it was hardly worth risking so much merely to insure to the United States another hundred miles of territory. Texas claimed that its western boundary was the Rio Grande. Mexico claimed that it was the river Neuces. Congress pretended to believe that Mexico had first declared war, and President Polk labored in his message of 1846 to show that the territory of the United States had been invaded by the Mexicans. The fallacy of this statement was exposed by Abraham Lincoln, who was then a member of the House of Representatives. However, many volunteers were sent by the southwestern States, and when General Taylor's army was swelled to seven thousand men, he approached the fortified town of Monterey. This was garrisoned by ten thousand Mexicans, under the command of General Santa Anna, who had formerly been President of Mexico, and was considered the best soldier of that republic. When Taylor sat down before the city with his force, he sent General Worth's division to plant itself on the enemy's line of retreat. The Americans took first one and then another of the fortified eminences upon the river, and on the 23d of September they fought their way into the streets of the city. These were held by stout barricades and nobly defended, but as Taylor pressed from the east and Worth from the west, the Mexicans were finally obliged to yield.

The winter passed without any brilliant engagement, but in May, 1847, Colonel Philip Kearney was ordered to organize an expedition for the occupation of New Mexico and Upper California. He marched into Santa Fe on the 18th of August with eighteen hundred men, and issued a proclamation declaring the inhabitants absolved from their allegiance to Mexico, and organizing the State as a Territory of the

United States. He appointed a civil governor and hastened on to California with a small cavalry force. John C. Fremont, with an exploring expedition, was in California at the time, and was ordered by the Government to see that no foreigners should trespass upon the country; in other words, that the Spaniards and Mexicans should be irritated as much as possible. He learned that the Mexican commandant of California was on the point of expelling some American settlers, and this gave him the excuse for at once assuming the offensive. He captured the city of Sonoma and succeeded in securing independence to



OLDEST HOUSE IN THE UNITED STATES, SANTA FE, NEW MEXICO.

the settlers. Not that they were eager for independence, but the gallant young captain was determined to make American patriots of them, even against their will. Commodore Stockton, who commanded the American fleet, had joined Fremont, taken possession of Los Angeles, and then of Monterey, the capital of California, and set up a provisional government, with himself at the head.

Meanwhile, the Government, considering that Taylor's manner of conducting the war was far too conciliatory, sent General Winfield

Scott to take the chief command and conduct the war in Old Mexico as should seem to him best. He reached Taylor in January of 1847, took ten thousand of Taylor's troops, and left that general not quite seven thousand. News of this reached Santa Anna, and he prepared to strike while his enemy was thus divided. Taylor heard that the Mexicans were approaching in force, and he fell back to a strong position south of Saltillo. Here, among the thin, sharp mountain walls, and the innumerable passes and ravines, is a broad plateau, known now as the Battle Ground of Buena Vista. Taylor had with him in fighting condition but fifty-two hundred men. Santa Anna's force at the very least was twelve thousand. Cavalry, of course, could not be used on ground of this nature, and, indeed, the attacking party could not even get their artillery in position. Taylor placed his men in groups upon the tops of the bluffs near the edge of the plateau. Here they fought through February 22d, and on the 23d renewed the contest. The plateau was mid-way up the mountain, and Santa Anna sent part of his men to descend from the higher bluffs and others to scale the incline from below. Throughout the day the ground was hotly contested. Now a Mexican and now an American column was forced to draw back. As night closed in the result of the day was still undecided, but when morning broke the Americans found that the Mexicans had retreated. They learned later that the Mexican loss was much heavier than their own.

Scott had taken his army to within a few miles of Vera Cruz. Vera Cruz was a strongly fortified city of seven thousand inhabitants. The castle of San Juan de Ulloa stood about a thousand yards off shore on a reef commanding all the channels of the harbor. The Mexicans had supposed that it would be impossible for any boats to reach the city without coming under the guns of this strong castle, but Scott landed his men by means of surf boats, and bombarded the castle for four days. The city and castle surrendered on the 27th.

The capital of Mexico was still two hundred miles distant, but toward this Scott marched as soon as he received the necessary supplies. At Cerro Gordo he was intercepted by the Mexicans, who had taken position on the heights at a strong mountain pass, with a battery commanding every turn of the road. But the Americans climbed up paths which the Mexicans had thought inaccessible and fell upon the enemy's rear, while others bravely contested the pass. The intrenchments were finally carried by storm, and the guns turned upon the rapidly-retreating Mexicans. Santa Anna fled with his men toward

Jalapa. Scott followed him and took the place and waited here for reinforcements, which soon arrived. Santa Anna opened negotiations for peace, and promised to stop fighting if one million dollars was paid to him personally. He wished an installment of ten thousand immediately, and this Scott paid to him. But the Mexican Congress decided that the cause was not yet desperate, and Santa Anna's arrangement was disregarded. Scott, therefore, marched on with his men to the city of Mexico. He found that this was approached by causeways, crossing low and marshy ground, and these causeways were commanded by rocky hills which were strongly fortified. Santa Anna intercepted him and brought about the battle of Contreras. This was fought at the west of the city upon a rugged field of broken lava. The ground was terrible, the artillery and the cavalry almost useless, and even the infantry were injured not a little by falls upon the treacherous and broken crust. The Mexicans were finally surrounded, and many of them were cut down upon the spot, while others escaped through the American lines and took to the mountain paths. Two thousand Mexicans were killed or wounded, and nearly a thousand captured, including four generals. All the stores and ammunition fell into the hands of the Americans, who had lost but sixty in killed and wounded.

Following close upon the battle of Contreras came that of Churubusco. Here Santa Anna had concentrated his entire force. A large stone convent guarded the bridge, across which the Americans were obliged to pass, and the river at this point was very wide. The Mexicans were prepared to defend the bridge stoutly, having pierced the building for the use of muskets, and surrounded it by a strong field-work. But the Americans approached by ditches and dykes closer and closer, till at last they crossed the moat, scaled the parapet, and won the convent—and the battle of Churubusco. Their loss, however, had been very heavy.

Scott's next movement was, on September 7th, upon the Molino del Rey (the King's Mill), a group of strong stone buildings, where it was said that the church bells of the city were being cast into cannons. Not far from this stood the castle of Chapultepec, upon the great rock of that name. The buildings were five hundred yards long. They had been barricaded, loop-holed, and provided with sand-bag parapets. Not far from these buildings was the Casa Mata, another strong building prepared for defence. Between these two buildings was a battery, and about them the Mexicans had gathered in force. Scott was located upon the southern side of the city, and, therefore, left

Worth to conduct the siege of these buildings, which were upon the western side of the city. Scott did not himself think the castle of Chapultepec of much importance, and when Worth begged that he might be allowed to take it if possible, Scott refused his request. He therefore prepared his men to take the Molino del Rey, and surrounded that building before daylight in the morning. His orders were to capture the battery, but when the men crept up to the spot where they last saw it, they found it had been moved. A moment later it opened upon their flanks, killing more than half the attacking column. While the Americans were reforming, the Mexicans rushed upon the ground and killed the wounded. But the Americans recovered and charged again. Companies of sharpshooters picked off the gunners and the Mexicans upon the roofs of the buildings. At last the gate of the great yard gave way, and the assailants rushed in, continuing the fight hand-to-hand within the court. A large part of the very best of the American force were slain and the Mexicans were killed in great numbers, the survivors finally retreating to the castle of Chapultepec. The fire was still kept up from Casa Mata, and the Americans approached in the very teeth of the fire, bringing the whole of their artillery to bear upon the walls, forcing the Mexicans to abandon the building. Worth had secured these buildings at a terrible cost, as seven hundred and eighty, out of three thousand five hundred of his troops, had fallen, but in obedience to Scott's positive orders, they were abandoned to the Mexicans.

Later, however, in a council of war, it was determined that the castle of Chapultepec must be reduced before the city could be taken. This castle stands upon a great rock a hundred and fifty feet high. The northern and southern sides of this rock are absolutely inaccessible, and the eastern and a portion of the western nearly so. It is possible to scale the southwestern and western sides. A battery stood in the angle of the long zig-zag road which formed the regular approach to the castle. Strong fortifications were placed upon the rock, and around were ditches, aqueducts and walls. The Molino del Rey was upon the western side, and upon the east two great causeways led into the city of Mexico. Two thousand men, with thirteen heavy guns, defended the place. The Americans tried to reduce it by artillery fire alone, but finding this impossible, a party seized the Molino and occupied it. From here, on the 13th of September, fire was opened upon the castle, and a little later infantry were sent out to advance along the grounds of the great enclosure which extends west of the castle. This western slope was perforated with mines, but the Mexican officer who came out to

explode them was shot down, and the assailants went on to the crest of the hill. This crest, however, they could not climb, and as they had no scaling ladders at hand, they took refuge in the crevices of the rocks, and picked off the Mexicans at the guns. A large number of the Mexicans were letting themselves down the perpendicular rock on the eastern side, and a force was sent around to intercept them, and cut off their retreat. When the scaling ladders arrived, the force upon the west scaled the walls in the midst of a terrible fire and gained the parapet. They then walked across the ditch upon the ladders. Meanwhile, another party had climbed up the southern slope and entered at the great gate. The enemy gave way everywhere and the Americans took possession of the castle. Then they pushed on after the flying enemy into the city, but when they reached the citadel where Santa Anna commanded, they were met with a fire so dreadful that further advance was simply impossible. However, the Americans gained possession of numerous buildings and dragged their howitzers to the roofs where they did destructive work upon the Mexicans below. Night fell with Americans in the city, but the citadel was still unconquered. The Mexicans held a council of war and decided to withdraw their army from the city, liberate the convicts in the prison, arm them, and urge the inhabitants of the city to fight with them from the house-tops. The army was therefore drawn out of the city in the night, and when morning dawned gangs of convicts, deserters, robbers and thieves took the place of the soldiers, fighting with paving stones which had been carried by the thousands to the house-tops in the night. The American artillery was turned upon these houses and the desperate people soon submitted. By the 15th of September, 1848, the city was quiet and in possession of the Americans. Then came the treaty which ended the war, and gave to the United States not only Texas, but New Mexico, California and Arizona.

This year General Taylor, candidate of the Democratic party, was elected President by a large majority over Charles Francis Adams, the nominee of the Free-Soil party.

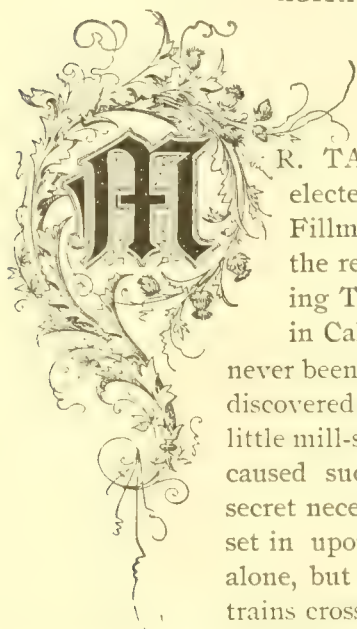
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Major Ripley's "History of the Mexican War."
 Fremont's "Memoirs."
 Scott's "Autobiography."
FICTION—J. R. Lowell's "Bagelow Papers."
 J. Clement's "Bernard Lask."
 "Talbot and Vernon." Anon.
 C. L. Hentz's "The Planter's Northern Bride."
 C. L. Hentz's "Eoline."
 C. L. Hentz's "Marcus Warland."
POETRY—Charles F. Hoffman's "Monterey."
 J. G. Lyon's "Hero of Monterey."
 Albert Pike's "Buena Vista."
 Whittier's "Angels of Buena Vista."

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

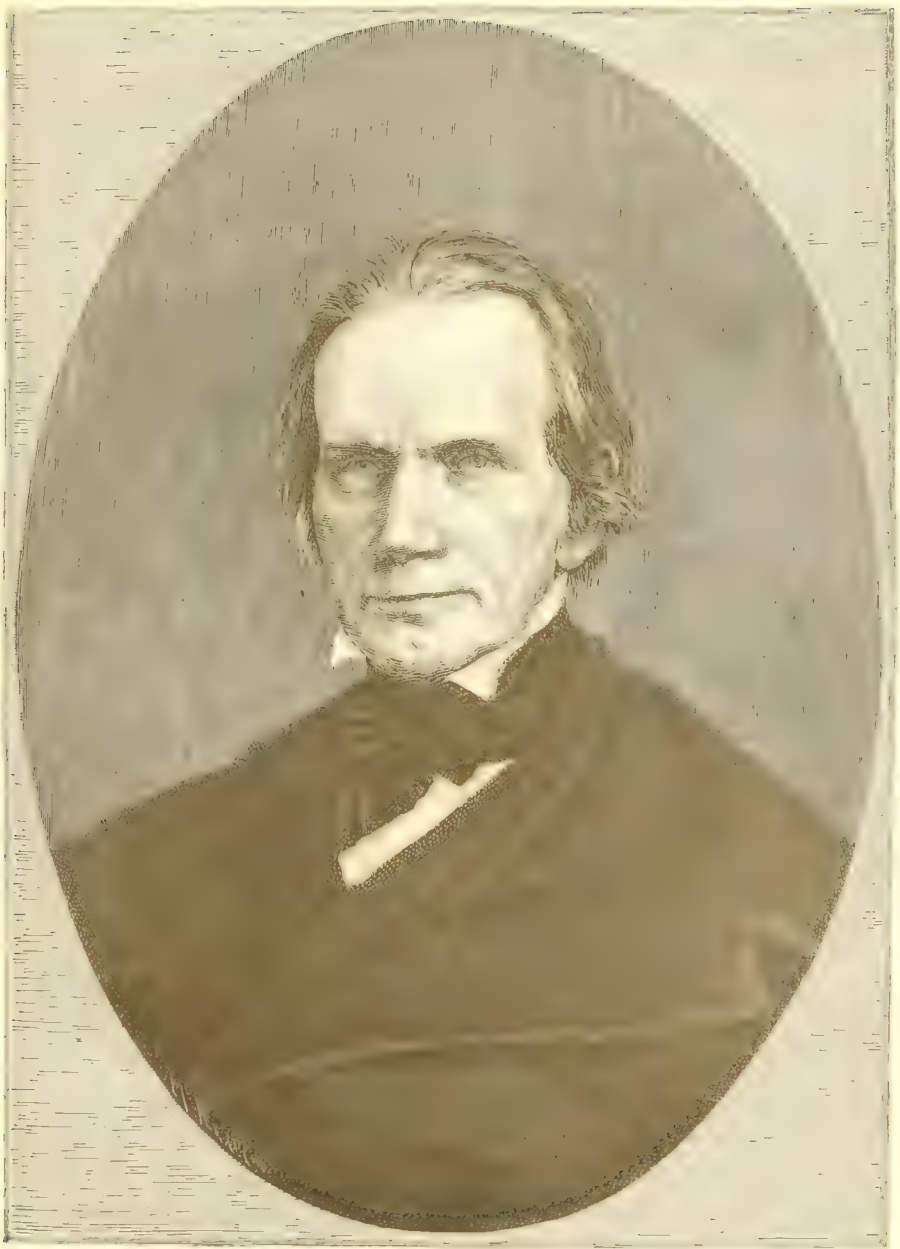
Gold and Iron Chains.

DEATH OF TAYLOR, AND ADMINISTRATION OF MILLARD FILLMORE—
DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA—SLAVERY
AGITATION—THE TROUBLE
IN KANSAS.



R. TAYLOR lived but one year after he was elected President, and Vice-President Millard Fillmore, of New York, became President for the remainder of that term—1850 to 1853. During Taylor's administration gold was discovered in California. It is most surprising that it had never been discovered before, and that it should be discovered now quite by accident. It was found in a little mill-stream running from the Sierra Nevada, and caused such excitement that all efforts to keep it secret necessarily failed. A great tide of emigration set in upon California, not from the Eastern States alone, but from all parts of the world. Great wagon trains crossed the desolate plains and the snowy passes of the Rocky Mountains to the land of gold. Many gold-seekers went away around Cape Horn, and yet others ventured across the Isthmus of Panama. So rapidly did the population increase that it was not long before the Territory applied to the Union for admission as a State. In the State constitution which was formed, slavery was prohibited forever. President Taylor was a Southern man with slave-holding principles, but he was one who earnestly desired to preserve the union of the States, and in readily granting this constitution to California he hoped that the anti-slavery agitation might be quieted, and the country saved from the conflict to which even the dullest could see it was inevitably drifting.

The Free-Soil party was rapidly gaining strength. Northern Sena-



HENRY CLAY

tors presented resolutions, whenever there was an opportunity, for the prohibition of slavery in the new Territories, but none of these bills were carried. Mr. Clay, who twice before in the clash of sectional opinions had offered compromises which temporarily allayed the storm, tried once more to act as conciliator. Kentucky was making a new constitution, and Clay suggested that there should be a gradual emancipation of the slaves in that State, and that as they were made free they should be colonized in Africa. But though Clay had been the cherished idol of the Kentucky people, they could not endure this resolution, and he was deserted by the "Fire-eaters," as the slave-holding extremists were now called. Daniel Webster, whom the North had always considered one of its warmest and most eloquent supporters, was guilty at this time of a change of opinion. He supported the compromises of Mr. Clay, perhaps with the hope that he might gain Southern favor—for it must be clearly understood that Mr. Clay's compromises had for their end the quieting of the Northern conscience. It was hoped that these concessions to Northern prejudice would secure the Southern States from further interference. Daniel Webster's attitude was that the Union would be disbanded if the slave-holders were not allowed to have their way. He believed in the preservation of the Union, even at the price of the continuance of slavery. Mr. Calhoun, the third great statesman of that period, was dying, and his influence could no longer be used to uphold the policy of the South.

When Mr. Fillmore took the presidential chair left vacant by the death of Taylor, Mr. Webster was taken into the Cabinet as Secretary of State, and the North knew that it could hope for but little from the Administration. He accepted and signed the compromise without hesitation, and the beginning of his administration is noted for the passage of the fugitive slave law. This gave the owners of slaves permission to recapture their escaped slaves in any part of the free States, and to carry them back without trial by jury. That the slave-holders might meet with no hindrance or annoyance, commissioners were appointed throughout the country who were to decide upon all questions of capture. If they decided that the slave was the property of the man who claimed him, their fees were twice what they were if they decided otherwise. This law was received in the North with horrified indignation. Since every citizen was obliged to prescribe to it, many men refused to take the oath of citizenship or to vote. Others already bound protested that right was greater than law, and that they should simply disregard the enactment. It was a matter in which few could be

passive. Every citizen in the free States was considered as under obligations to capture and return to their masters any negroes found within their territory. The alarm among the colored people was intense. The free negroes knew that there was no legal protection left them, and that any of them at any time might be seized and returned to slavery. They had not dared to count on the strong wave of sympathy which swept the North. A few years before, to be an Abolitionist was to be despised, persecuted, almost outlawed. But now the question was shown to the public in a different light. The Southern States had disregarded Northern wishes, and it occurred to the North that the gospel of State Rights might not apply alone to the States of the South. It had always been urged in the support of slavery; why was it not possible to urge it for the protection of liberty? It was therefore determined by private opinion that the Northern States would do as they pleased about rendering up fugitive slaves. But it was the masses who decided this. The prominent men, with the ministers at their head, protested that the law must be obeyed, and begged the people not to disturb commercial prosperity by any ill-advised sentimentalism.

When attempts were made to capture fugitive slaves, the slave-hunters found that they met with unexpected obstacles. The people of the villages aroused to defend the slaves with arms, not alone from impulses of humanity, but to protect what they deemed their constitutional right. The tables were turned upon the South. State sovereignty put on a new aspect. Not unfrequently slaves were snatched from the court-room and carried away by their friends of the Free-Soil party. But government, whether State or municipal, had no sympathy with these demonstrations.

Boston showed that she intended to have the obnoxious law obeyed. An attempt was made to rescue Antony Burns, a fugitive slave, from the court house. The attack was repelled and one man was killed. The city called out the militia and the marshal joined to these all the United States troops in the vicinity. Antony Burns, a dejected frightened negro, was given back to his master with as much military pomp as might have celebrated the victory of a conqueror. More than one hundred civil officers of Boston, with the poor fugitive in their midst, marched out of the court house in a solid square formed by United States marines and a company of artillery. But this represented only the authority of the law. In the hearts of the people who watched the poor slave as he was taken in the midst of this display to

Long Wharf, there smouldered the protest which makes righteous revolution so much higher than law. No doubt this pitiable rendition of Antony Burns was a good thing for Massachusetts, for now throughout the State there was a righteous anger, as intense as that which animated her when she fought for her own liberty three-quarters of a century before. There, and indeed throughout the North, when law failed, force was resorted to, and the slaves were rescued. When it became necessary for the slaves to fight in their own defense, arms were put into their hands. In some States the use of prisons, and the services of State officers in the arrest of fugitives, were forbidden by State legislation. The South saw that it had gone too far.

Otherwise the administration was not without benefit. Postage was reduced, the agricultural bureau established, the Pacific Railroad begun, and the enlargement of the Capitol started. Those negotiations which opened up Japan to the world were begun. As the time for the election of a new President drew near, the Congressional members for thirty-three States pledged themselves not to support any man for the presidency not opposed to the renewal of the agitation of slavery. John Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, was the Democratic candidate. The Whigs held three conventions and nominated for President John Parker Hale, of New Hampshire. The Democrats were successful, and Pierce entered the presidency, pledging himself to do all in his power to preserve silence upon the question of slavery. But he had not been in office six weeks when the agitation was renewed as bitterly as ever by the efforts of the friends of slavery to overthrow the Missouri Compromise. This, it will be remembered, passed in 1820, and prohibited slavery north of a certain line of that great domain which had been bought under the name of Louisiana. It was now proposed to organize, out of that region from which slavery had been thus excluded, two new Territories, to be named Kansas and Nebraska. The inhabitants of these were to have the right to determine for themselves whether they should establish slavery or freedom—"squatter sovereignty," an epigrammatic Senator termed it. This bill passed May 30, 1854, and through the North it awakened an indignation as intense as if a part of the Constitution had been repealed. An invisible line seemed to divide the section between free labor and slavery, and to break over this line seemed treason and sacrilege. The "Northern conscience," of which the South had been so afraid, was aroused at last. The "religious liberty" at which the South sneered was the foundation of their resentment.

The Northwest crowded the new Territories with settlers. The Massachusetts Emigrant Aid Company was formed, holding a capital of five million dollars, and this company took five hundred New England emigrants into Kansas. The slave-holding element of Missouri was alarmed. They could easily see that Kansas was likely to become a free-labor State beyond the power of legislature to hinder. It was not easy for a slave-holder to prepare a plantation and move his army of negroes into the doubtful Territory. But the men of the North and the West, adaptable, industrious and enterprising, seized the opportunity to settle upon fertile lands, which could be had for nothing, or next to it, with avidity. But whenever a party reached the line which divides Missouri from Kansas, they were met with strong opposition by the reckless and brutal men of that region, known as "Border Ruffians." These tried in vain to check the stream of emigration. Meetings of men in the slave interest were held in Missouri, in which they pledged themselves to remove any and all emigrants who should go to Kansas under the auspices of the emigrant aid societies, and the frequent outrages on the Missouri line testified how ambitious they were to keep their word. W. H. Reeder, of Pennsylvania, was appointed Governor of the Territory, and arrived in Kansas in October, 1854. Most of the emigrants settled at Lawrence, or near there, for the reason that the title of the land there was clear, whereas at that time much of the Kansas territory had a doubtful title, as the Indians had not yet given up their claims to the land.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION—R. Hildreth's "White Slave."
 Holt's "Abraham Page."
 J. Hungerford's "The Old Plantation."
 J. H. Ingraham's "Sunny South."
 Mrs. Jeffrey's "Woodburn."
 M. Lennox's "Ante-Bellum."
 Logan's "The Master's House."
 M. J. McIntosh's "The Lofty and the Lowly."
 Miss Palfrey's "Herman."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin."
 G. W. Peck's "Aurifodina."
 W. W. Brown's "Clatella."
 Mrs. Cross' "Azile."
 W. Adams' "The Sable Cloud."
 W. F. Adams' "Hatchie."

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

The Truth Goes Marching On.

SACKING OF LAWRENCE—JOHN BROWN AND THE DESTRUCTION OF
OSSAWOTTOMIE—ELECTION OF BUCHANAN—ASSAULT ON
SUMNER—THE MORMONS—ELECTION OF LINCOLN.



SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.



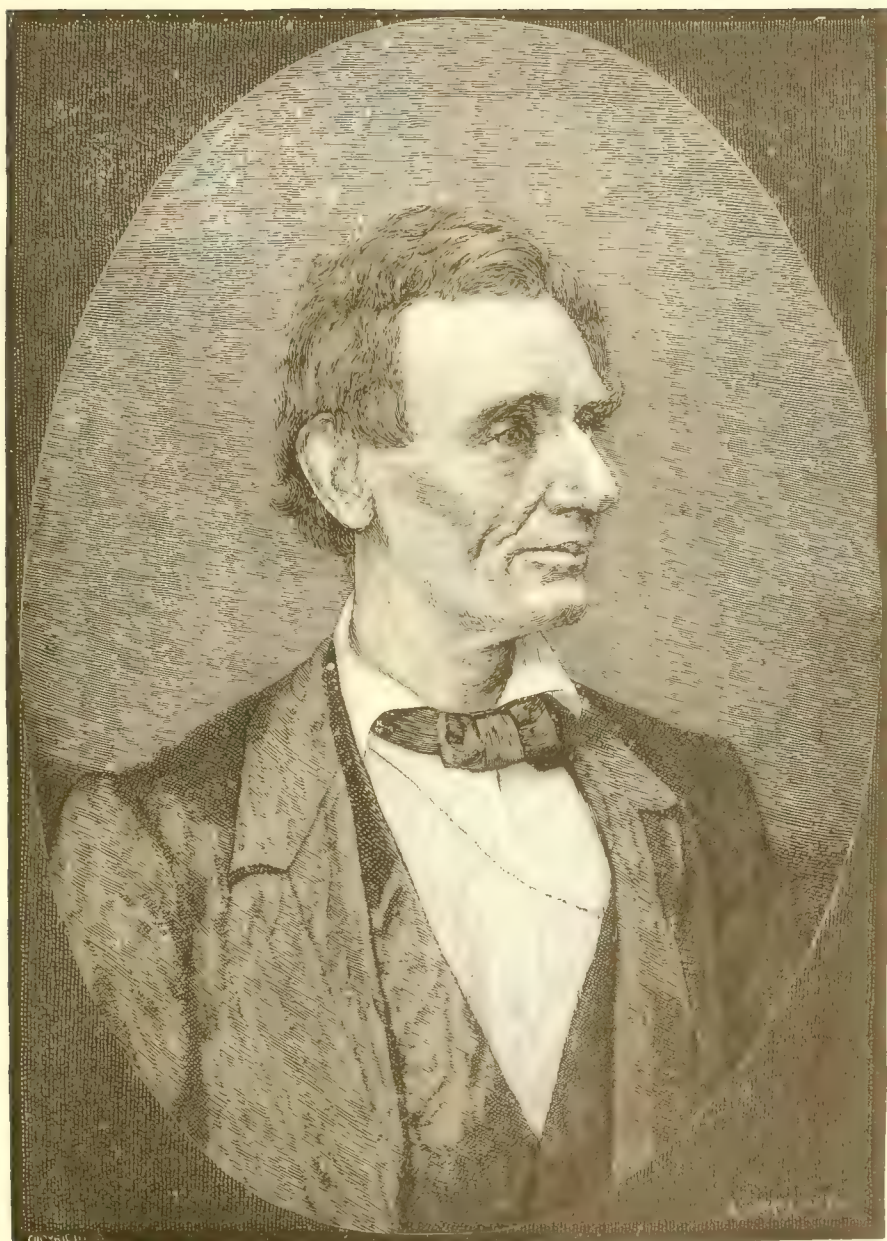
MORMON TEMPLE.

AS soon as Kansas ventured to prepare for an election, an army of Missourians invaded her territory and cast votes for the candidate of the slave-holding interest. More ballots, indeed, were cast for the Democratic ticket than there were voters in the State. As the governor would not countenance these outrages, he was removed, and a man who could be depended upon to wink at

coercion was put in his place. The inhabitants of Kansas called a convention and prepared a constitution for themselves. To keep this from going into operation the militia were called out, and a military company from South Carolina invaded the State, pledged to war. Lawrence was sacked, and some of its principal buildings burned. A civil war between the two parties followed. Many lives were lost on both sides, and Kansas acquired the melancholy nickname of "Bleeding Kansas." The influence of the administration at Washington was against the Free State party, and the United States troops were used for such purposes as dispersing the legislature and arresting the leaders of the Free State party. Yet another Governor was appointed, and under his administration an army from Missouri entered the Territory, and destroyed the village of Ossawatimie. This was the home of a peculiar man named John Brown. He was absent at this time, in pursuit of a party of border ruffians who had recently killed one of his sons, and who at that time had two others in chains. Brown returned to find his home destroyed, and to lay out, in his simple, passionate way, a plan which, in its failure, cost him his life.

In the beginning of 1857 the Kansas legislature met once more, but the prominent members were arrested by the United States marshal, leaving both houses without a quorum. But the bitter struggle came to an end after a time. The Free State men conquered, and the attempt to force slavery into the Territory was given up. A constitution prohibiting slavery in Kansas was made in 1852, and Charles Robinson was the first Governor chosen. Two years before this, Franklin Pierce, "who had come in with little opposition, and gone out with none," had given place to James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania.

At the time of Buchanan's election the country was in a political ferment. A party called the "Know Nothing Party" had been organized in New York, and its ranks were rapidly swelled. Its avowed purpose was to check foreign influence, especially the influence of the Pope, purify the ballot, and maintain the use of the Bible in public schools. The organization was a secret one, and, no doubt, had purposes which it did not confide to the world. It was called the Know Nothing party, because it was the habit of the members to say that they knew nothing of the proceedings or intentions of the society. In the midst of the greatest confusion of opinion and of the bitterest discussion in Congress, Buchanan came to the presidency as the candidate of the Democratic party. A little later, the Senate was disgraced by one of the most shocking occurrences of those troublous times. Charles



A. Lincoln

Sumner, Senator from Massachusetts, delivered on two days a speech which he called, when published, the "Crime Against Kansas." It was replied to by four different Senators, who, prompted by the bitterness and insolence which the time seemed to provoke in all, used expressions and indulged in abuse of which the Senate chamber had previously been guiltless. Mr. Sumner retaliated with indignation and even fierceness. Two days later, after the Senate adjourned, and he was sitting at his desk writing, Preston S. Brooks, a representative from South Carolina, approached him and said: "I have read your speech twice over carefully; it is a libel on South Carolina." He hit Mr. Sumner over the head with a heavy stick till he fell to the floor bleeding. For four years the State of Massachusetts was represented by his empty chair, while he was in Europe trying to recover his health. The act itself might have passed simply as the attack of a brutal man, and been thought no more of, but for the reason that the House and Senate sympathized largely with the assailant. Brooks, with an insolent speech, resigned from the House, but was returned at once by his constituents and received the congratulations of many. He died soon after, and an eulogy was pronounced upon him in the House. This showed plainly to the Liberty party of the North the trend which affairs were taking, and helped to swell the tide of resistance to Southern rule. Mr. Buchanan was another of those men who, though born in the North, were willing to sustain the Southern policy. His first message assured the country that the discussion of slavery had come to an end.

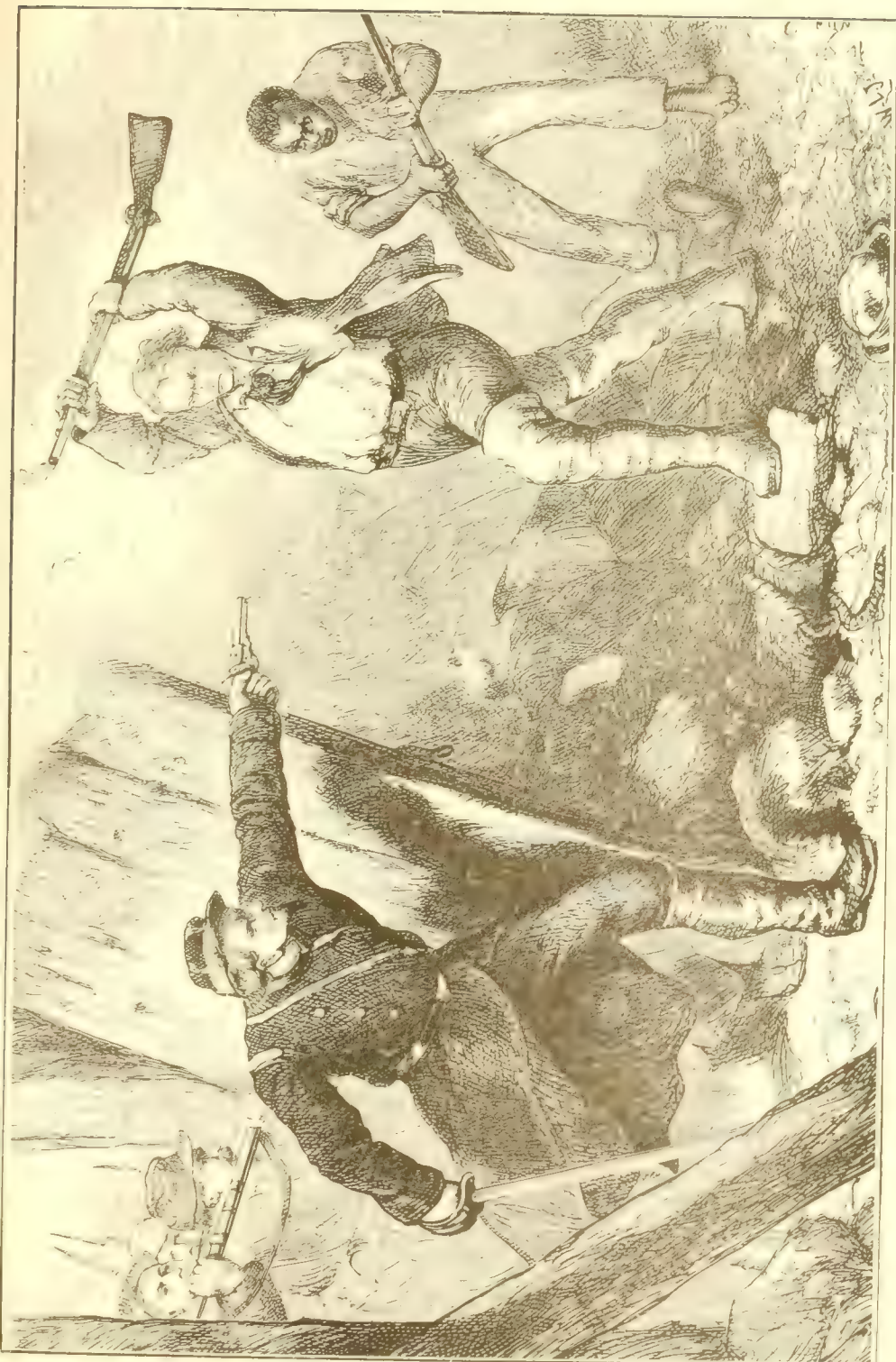
Following close upon this address came the decision of Judge Taney in the Dred Scott case. Scott claimed that he had been removed from Missouri to Illinois in 1834, and taken into territory north of the compromise line; that in 1838 he had been taken back into Missouri and sold again to his present master. He protested that he and his children were free, but his master maintained that Scott, being a negro, was not a citizen of Missouri and could not bring an action. The lower courts differed, and the case was brought before the United States Court. Here it was twice argued, and Chief Justice Taney gave it as the decision of the court, that the black men could not be citizens; that they could only be treated as property, and that they had no right which the white man was bound to respect. The most conservative in the North were startled by this decision into a radicalism which they had not before thought themselves capable of.

In the midst of these troubles a wave of great financial depression swept over the country. Commerce and enterprise had been developing

at an abnormal rate, and the system of credit had been perilously wide. The prosperity proved to be an apple of Sodom, which, when crushed, gave out only a puff of dust.

In this same year the Government took exception to the views held by the Mormons, and the President removed their Governor, Brigham Young, who was also the Prophet of their Church, and appointed a Gentile. This plan has always been followed since. The Mormons have converted the once arid desert of Utah into a very paradise, and every traveler is astonished to find such a beautiful and thriving country; and here, again, is to be found one of the wonders of the world—the Great Salt Lake. The summer of this year was marked by the first telegraphic message which ever passed from America to Europe. This cable was laid by private enterprise, and neither the Governments of England or the United States can take any credit to themselves.

In the summer of 1858 John Brown came into prominence. Every few years there arises somewhere in the world a man whom criticism calls a fanatic and whom posterity recognizes as a martyr. In truth, Brown was both. The contending theories of politicians, the tedious delays of the law and of Government and the shameless procrastination which was shown by the Administration, lashed him into resistance. He was of Puritan blood, and had in him the Puritan devotion to duty and principle. He had seen the suffering of the people of Kansas, who were laboring for freedom, and had himself suffered from the outrages of the border ruffians. One son had been killed and another driven insane by these men, and he meant to devote his life to aid, so far as he could, the extermination of slavery and the punishment of the slaveholder. Like many another reformer a strain of madness mingled with his devotion. He believed that he was God's messenger. Early in the year he had called together in Canada a quiet convention of the "True Friends of Freedom," and had prepared a provisional constitution for the people of the United States. He had been well acquainted in his youth with the mountains of Virginia, and it seemed to him that they were made to be the stronghold of an army—an idea which Washington had held before him. His plan was now to get the slaves to join him; to retreat to these mountains and hold them until the slaves from all over the land flocked to his standard and let him lead them to liberty. George L. Stearns secured him arms and gave him four hundred dollars. Brown went to Maryland and established himself at Harper's Ferry. On the 16th of October, 1859, he took possession of the United States Armory and buildings at Harper's Ferry, stopped railroad trains, and held the town



CAPTURE OF JOHN BROWN IN THE ENGINE HOUSE.

with a force of fourteen white men and four negroes. He would doubtless have escaped had he not been too considerate of the feelings of the families of the men whom he kept as hostages. On their account he delayed, and United States troops, under the command of Colonel Robert E. Lee, soon surrounded his little force and compelled it to retire to the engine house. Here Brown's band fought desperately. Thirteen of them were killed or mortally wounded, and among them two of Brown's sons. He defied danger with perfect coolness, and one of his prisoners describes him as feeling the pulse of his dying son with one hand, and holding his rifle with the other, all the while encouraging his men. After his capture he was put on trial before a Virginian court, and behaved with such fortitude, self-forgetfulness and dignity that even his enemies admired him. He was condemned and hanged December 2, 1859, at Charleston, Virginia, stopping on the way to the scaffold to kiss a little slave child. Six of his comrades were hung the next day. A few others, who had been on duty outside of the town at the time of Brown's capture, escaped to the mountains and thence to the free States.

The South was in a ferment. It was generally understood that should the Republicans succeed in electing their candidate in the next campaign, that it would be the signal for secession. At this campaign there were in the field the Democratic party, the advocates of secession, the Constitutional Union National party—made up of the remnants of the old Whig and American parties, who hoped both to avoid war and preserve the Union—and the Republican party. Abraham Lincoln was the candidate of the last named party, and he was elected by the largest popular vote ever given for any President. Very glad was Mr. Buchanan to resign his place to some one who would take the responsibility of meeting the great questions of the hour. Mr. Lincoln was a man of very moderate opinions in regard to slavery, and he said often in public speeches, that he did not approve of abolishing slavery in the States where it was already established by law. But notwithstanding this, his election was looked on as very dangerous for the slave States, and his inauguration was the signal for disunion.

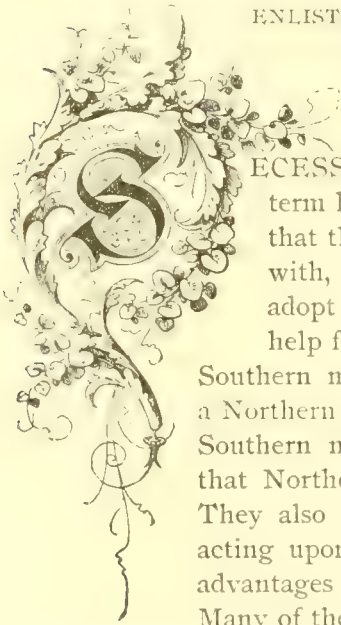
FOR FURTHER READING

- BIOGRAPHY—NICKELAY and HAYES, "Life of Lincoln."
 Drew's "John Brown's Invasion."
 FICTION—J. W. De Forest's "Kate Beaumont."
 Mrs. Dupuy's "The Planter's Daughter."
 J. R. Gilmore's "Among the Trees."
 J. R. Hatchman's "Dead Men's Shoes."
 S. J. Hales' "Northwood."
 POETRY—Phoebe Cary's "John Brown."
 E. C. Stebbins's "Observations on Brown."
 John De Forest's "John Brown's Scaffold."

CHAPTER LXXXV.

"We Are Coming, Father Abraham."

SECESSION—THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY—ATTACK ON FORT SUMPTER—THE FIRST CALL FOR TROOPS—THE THREE YEARS' ENLISTMENT—THE BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

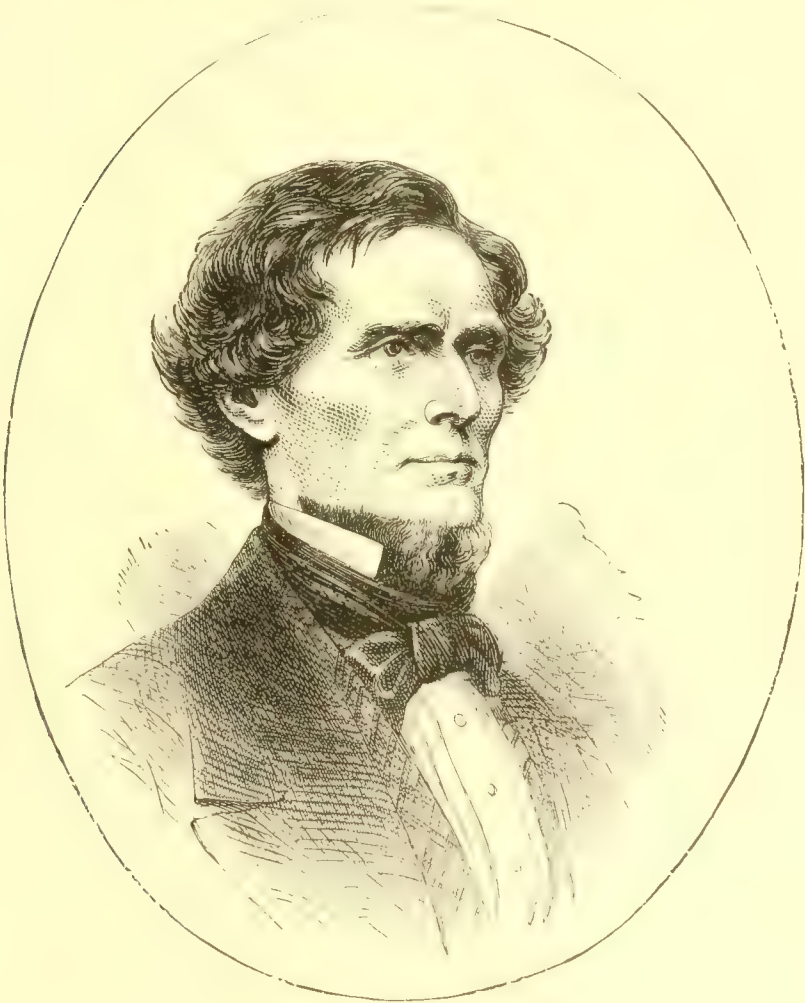


SECESSION was begun before President Buchanan's term had expired. It is putting it mildly to say that the Secessionists were confident. To begin with, they believed that since they were ready to adopt a free-trade policy, they could rely upon help from England. They also believed that a Southern man would be much more than a match for a Northern one in war, and it was quite true that the Southern men were used to arms and to horses and that Northern men, as a class, were used to neither. They also counted upon the fact that they would be acting upon the defensive, and would have all the advantages which such a mode of warfare entails. Many of them united to form a large secret society and

called themselves the Knights of the Golden Circle. The members were numerous and had much influence in all that followed.

South Carolina took the lead in withdrawing from the Union, and a convention was called in that State, which, on December 20, 1860, adopted an ordinance of secession. Within six weeks like conventions were held and like votes passed in the States of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas. These States then formed themselves into what was called the Southern Confederacy, and on February 8, 1862, elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President. Virginia was reluctant for some time to vote for secession, but her wealth depended almost entirely upon the raising of slaves for the cotton States. Should the cotton States organize themselves into a successful confed-

eracy, and Virginia be left out, it was evident that her prosperity would suffer, for one of the articles of the constitution of the Confederacy was that the seceding States should hold no commercial intercourse with other States.



JEFFERSON DAVIS IN 1861

President Buchanan seemed to have his judgment paralyzed. He did, indeed, say that the States had no right to secede, but he also declared that the Constitution gave him no power to coerce them. Even when the authorities in South Carolina claimed possession of all

the national property in the State, Buchanan remained inactive. Major Robert Anderson, who commanded the garrison of Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, seeing that he could expect no help from the Government, removed his force, on Christmas night, 1860, to Fort Sumpter.

The men of the South were gathered in large numbers in Charleston, and General G. T. Beauregard was put in command of the Confederate forces. His first act was to erect batteries for the destruction of Fort Sumpter. Anderson was not a strong Unionist, and though he did his duty—or partly did it—his heart was not in the matter. He permitted the Confederates to visit his fort, and to examine all of his preparations. When Beauregard was ready for attack he refused all privileges of communication between Charleston and the fort, and demanded a surrender. To provision the fort, the steamer *Star of the West* was sent in January, 1861, but before she could reach her destination she was driven off by the fire from the Confederate batteries. Mr. Lincoln had been in office one month when he sent a fleet to the relief of Fort Sumpter. Again General Beauregard demanded surrender. This was refused, and the batteries opened fire upon the fort early the next morning. The fire lasted for two days, and at midnight of the second day Major Anderson surrendered the fort. It was full of stifling smoke, his men were worn out, the barracks were on fire and his gunpowder almost gone. He was allowed to march out with the honors of war, and on April 14th he did so, firing his last powder away in saluting the United States flag with fifty guns.

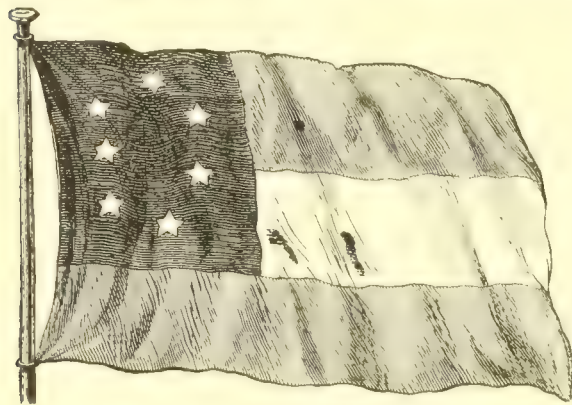
The men of both parties watched with deep interest the action of the various States. The Union had been swelled by three States during Buchanan's administration—Minnesota, Oregon and Kansas. These were added to the power of the North. Eight slave States, at the time of the fall of Sumpter, still remained in the Union; seven had gone out. Virginia soon joined these. Arkansas and North Carolina followed. Kentucky refused to secede, although she sent many men to the Confederate army. Maryland remained in the Union, although for some time it was thought that she would stand by the South. In the mountainous regions of Western North Carolina and Eastern Tennessee, there was a strong Union element, and the people of these counties asked to be separated peaceably from the rest of their respective States and allowed to remain in the Union. The persecution which this request was met with at the hands of the Secessionists drove many of the people from their homes. The people west of the Alleghany

Mountains, in Virginia, did, however, form a State of their own and remained in the Union, calling their State West Virginia, and selecting Wheeling as their capital. In a short time it was admitted into the Union.

On the day when Sumpter fell, President Lincoln called for militia from the several States of the Union to the number of seventy-five thousand. It was met with a response quicker and more cordial than even he had dared to hope for. A fever of patriotism took possession of the North. Every village seemed draped with the national flag. Every man who could possibly leave his home offered his services. Every loyal newspaper flung a flag above its headline. The very stationery was patriotic in the tri-colors of the Republic. Many of the most influential Democrats now came out on the side of the Union. These were called War Democrats. Those who lived in the North, and yet reviled the Government and the policy which dictated the war, were named "Copperheads," after the snake of that name. In every village there were barracks, where the recruits were stationed until they could be marched off to Washington, after a hasty drilling by some officer who knew almost as little as they about the tactics of war. Ephraim E. Ellsworth, a young man of Chicago, excited the ardent admiration of the recruits by displaying his excellently trained company of zouaves, and many were quick to follow his example. Among the first men to respond to the President's call were the 6th Massachusetts, which started within two days after the summons. When they reached Baltimore a great mob of Secessionists collected about them and began stoning them. The mob carried a Secession flag, and hurled epithets at the soldiers as freely as they did paving stones. Several pistol shots were fired from the windows, and a number of soldiers hit. The Mayor of the city walked at the head of the soldiers, in the hope that his presence would afford some protection. But as the mob grew more uncontrollable the Mayor seized a musket and shot one of the leaders. With the aid of a large number of policemen, the soldiers succeeded in getting through the city, and the three young militiamen that had been killed were sent home to their native State. After this the troops avoided Baltimore when possible in passing on their way to Washington.

Excitement grew in the North. An immense meeting was held in New York City, and a Union Defence Committee appointed to hasten the equipment of troops and the furnishing of ships and money. Under their engagement troops were soon pouring into Washington, which was defended by General Winfield Scott. On the 24th of May four

regiments crossed the Potomac and took possession of Arlington Heights, which command Washington. One regiment, recruited from the New York Fire Department and commanded by the gallant young Ellsworth, went by way of Alexandria. While passing through the



THE CONFEDERATE FLAG

city Ellsworth discovered a secession flag flying over the principal hotel. With two soldiers, he went to the top of the house, tore down the flag, and was returning to the street, when the proprietor of the house killed him with a shotgun. One of Ellsworth's companions retaliated instantly by killing the proprietor. It was a

dramatic incident, which appealed well to the sentiments of the young men of the country. Ellsworth had looked every inch a hero, and upon his death he certainly was made one. His picture was displayed everywhere and special regiments were formed and dedicated to the work of avenging his death. Another of the distinguished young men of the North who was killed at the very opening of the war was Theodore Winthrop, the young scholar and writer. He was sent on an unfortunate expedition against a Secession force at Big Bethel, and was killed there by a North Carolina drummer boy.

The seventy-five thousand troops which President Lincoln had called forth were three months' men, and it soon became apparent that secession in the South was not to be stopped in three months, nor in six. On May 3, 1861, the President issued another proclamation, calling for forty-two thousand volunteers for three years, and authorizing the raising of ten new regiments for the regular army. He also called for eighteen thousand volunteer seamen for the navy. But as the clouds gathered, Lincoln made a third call for men on the 4th of July, and Congress gave him authority to call for five hundred thousand men, and five hundred million dollars. The people were more than prompt in their response, but they over-valued the raw troops which then swarmed to Washington. They believed that because the men felt like fighting that they knew how to do it. Every paper in the North cried, "On to Richmond!" The impatience for war had its effect.

General Beauregard commanded the Confederate army nearest Washington, and defended the river of Bull Run, occupying a line eight miles long, facing towards Washington. General Scott's plan was to launch an army against Beauregard, turn his right flank, seize the railroads in the rear of his position and defeat him. General Joseph Johnston had a large number of Confederates in the Shenandoah valley. It was most important that this army should not be allowed to come to the help of Beauregard, and General Robert Patterson was given strict orders to prevent such a movement. Scott intrusted the immediate command of this exploit to General McDowell, a graduate of West Point, who had seen service in the Mexican War. There was a thorough confidence in Washington that McDowell would win, but the optimists did not take into consideration the lack of discipline in the army, nor the spies that filled the Washington departments, and sent word of every plan and movement to the Confederates. A large number of members of Congress followed in the rear of the army to witness the battle. One of them, John A. Logan, of Illinois, left his seat in the capital, shouldered a musket and joined in the ranks. The troops were soon upon the banks of Bull Run, although there had been some difficulty in getting them there, as they had a boyish way of stopping to pick berries or search for a drink of water as their impulses prompted. As they advanced, the enemy's out-posts fell back, and at Blackburn's Ford the Union troops met with their first opposition. The artillery was kept briskly going from both sides, and at last the infantry became engaged at this point, when both columns retreated with a loss of about sixty men on each side. McDowell gave up the plan of turning Beauregard's right flank, finding that he was very strongly intrenched at that point, and the two days which followed the engagement at Blackburn's Ford were spent in searching for a ford where a column could cross and protect the passage of the army. General Patterson did not succeed in keeping Johnston penned in the Shenandoah valley, and that general had joined Beauregard with a portion of his forces. McDowell did not know this, and crossed the stream with his force as soon as possible. The battle ground was a plateau thinly wooded and crossed by a small stream that flowed into Bull Run. The enemy were slowly driven back through this grove under a most destructive fire, but General Thomas J. Jackson and his men stood immovable upon the spot where they were posted, and won for General Jackson the name of "Stonewall." But as the Confederate line fell back, it gained higher ground, which placed the Union troops at a disadvantage. Jackson and

his men fell upon the Union right, and broke the troops. A terrible panic followed, and the troops swarmed back toward Washington in mad haste. The Congressmen in their carriages, the soldiers without their guns, the drivers of army wagons without their wagons and



"STONEWALL" JACKSON

clinging to the backs of their horses, rushed back together in a confusion so headlong that it would have been comical if it had not been tragic. The loss of the Confederates was about one thousand nine hundred; that of the Nationals about one thousand five hundred in

killed and wounded, and as many more in prisoners. But this victory was not so helpful to the Confederates as the people of the North imagined it would be. It disorganized the Confederate army more than defeat would have done, for the Southern volunteers thought that their cause was gained, and many of them went to their homes.

Later in the year there was a smaller battle at Ball's Bluff, in which the National troops were also unsuccessful.

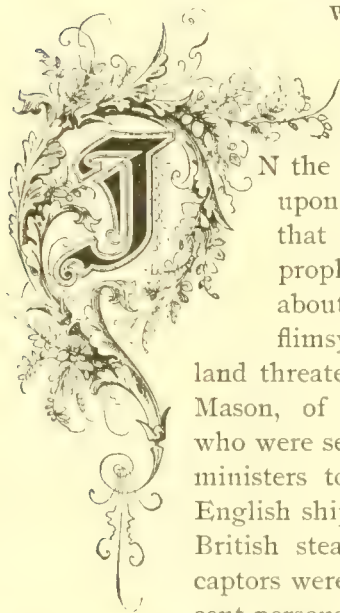
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—FRY'S "M. Dowell and Tylot at Bull Run,"
Doubleday's "Forts Sumpter and Moultrie."
Abbott's "Blue Jackets of '61."
- FICTION—J. H. Aughey's "The Iron Engineer,"
Mr. Remick's "Millicent Halford."
- POETRY—G. H. Boker's "Poems of the War,"
Mrs. Warfield's "Battle of Bull Run,"
Julia Ward Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic,"
A. G. H. Dugarme's "Bethel,"
Richard Kealf's "Apocalypse."

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

The Union Forever.

ATTITUDE OF FOREIGN POWERS—BOMBARDMENT OF THE FORTS AT
HATTERAS INLET—CONQUEST OF CHARLESTON HARBOR—
THE CAMPAIGN WEST OF THE ALLEGHANIES—GRANT
AT FORTS HENRY AND DONELSON—THE
WAR IN MISSOURI.



IN the Old World the American conflict was looked upon with satisfaction. Many were glad to see that the Republic, which they had always prophesied would end in failure and confusion, was about to fulfill the prophesy. France, upon a flimsy excuse, sent an army into Mexico. England threatened war because two gentlemen, James M. Mason, of Virginia, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, who were sent out by the Confederate Government as ministers to London and Paris, were taken from an English ship and returned to their own country. The British steamer was allowed to go on, because the captors were not willing to cause inconvenience to innocent persons. England demanded an apology and the return of the two men taken from her steamer. The Secretary of State, William H. Seward, sent a masterly letter to England, which, while it offered no apology, and, indeed, defended the capture of the ministers, nevertheless satisfied the English nation and averted war. The commissioners were released and allowed to sail for England, but their purpose had been practically thwarted. England continued, however, to sympathize with the insurgents. Her leading journals congratulated the Southerners upon their courage in upholding their rights. The Russian Government alone was friendly to the United States.

The Presidents who preceded Lincoln and the Cabinets which sustained them had systematically closed their ears and eyes to all that promised war, and now that the United States found itself confronted with the probabilities of a long conflict, she was poorly prepared. Her vessels were for the most part in foreign waters, and it was many months before news could reach them and bring them home. Only twelve vessels were in port—four in Northern and eight in Southern ports. Three hundred of the navy who had been educated for services in the United States went over to the Confederacy, as did a large number of those educated at West Point for the army—among them some of the best generals of the war. To establish itself on the seas, the Government bought all sorts of merchant crafts, and had gunboats built as hastily as possible. It was necessary to get vessels in sufficient quantity to secure the blockade of the Southern ports, but this was never made so secure that blockade runners did not frequently defy it. The Confederate Government enacted a law providing that a portion of every cargo brought into its ports must consist of arms and ammunition. Thus the Southern soldier was always well supplied with the best weapons which English arsenals could produce. The Confederates sent out cotton, tobacco and rice in payment for these. To shut off this trade was the ambition of the Federal Government. To do this, it was necessary to sustain a complete blockade of Southern ports. An expedition was fitted out at Hampton Roads, commanded by Flag-officer Silas H. Stringham. It numbered ten vessels and carried one hundred and fifty-eight guns. Two of these vessels were transport steamers having on board nine hundred troops, commanded by General Benjamin F. Butler. It sailed on the 26th of August, 1861, with sealed orders, and arrived at its destination, Hatteras Inlet, before sunset, anchoring off the bar. Early in the morning an attempt was made to land the troops, but the surf was so heavy that the powder was damaged and the lives of the men endangered, and only about one-third of the troops were landed. Two forts had been erected to protect Hatteras Inlet, and the project was to capture them. They were garrisoned by about six hundred men, but were not very strongly built. The troops that landed took possession of the smaller work, and the fleet bombarded the larger one. At the end of three hours the larger fort surrendered, and in the meantime the smaller one had been taken possession of without difficulty. Seven hundred prisoners were taken and sent to New York. Not a man was lost among the Federal forces. Garrisons were left to protect the place, and a coaling station was established for the blockading fleet.

By the last of October a much larger expedition sailed from Hampton Roads. It consisted of more than fifty vessels, and was commanded by Flag-officer Samuel F. Dupont. It had not long been out when it was scattered by a terrible gale. One transport vessel was completely wrecked; one threw over her battery and another her cargo, and one store ship was lost. It was some time before the fleet got together again. Then it was joined by some frigates which were blockading Charleston harbor, and all sailed for Port Royal, arriving on the 5th and 6th of November. The entrance to the harbor was protected by two earthworks, Fort Walker and Fort Beauregard. On the 7th of November the order of battle was formed. The fleet steamed steadily by Fort Walker, pouring shells and rifle shot into it. The fort made a gallant defence, but could not prevent the ships from turning and steaming out again, delivering a yet hotter fire. Three times the boats passed and repassed the fort; then the *Bienbellé* sailed yet closer and delivered a fire that dismounted several guns, and worked dreadful destruction in the fort. The gunboats were sweeping it with their fire, and at last the troops were seen pouring out of the fort in a panic. The Federalists sent a flag of truce on shore, but no one remained in the fort to receive it and the national colors were raised. The troops were then debarked and put in possession of both forts, repairing and strengthening the works. Thus the Government obtained a permanent foothold on the soil of South Carolina.

West of the mountains, the year 1862 opened with some lively work. A large Confederate force of Kentuckians had gathered at Paintville. These were attacked by Colonel James A. Garfield, in command of one thousand eight hundred infantry and three hundred cavalry. They were driven out of Paintville and finally forced into another engagement. At last they retreated in the night, leaving their dead on the field. A few months before this there had been an engagement west of the mountains in which the loss was greater. This was called the battle of Mill Springs, and was fought at the head of steamboat navigation on the Cumberland. General George H. Thomas was in command of the Federalists, and General George B. Crittenden was in command of the Confederates. The battle began early on the morning of January 19, 1862. It was fiercely fought through the day, and by night the Confederates took refuge in their intrenchments. In the morning they managed to cross the Cumberland, leaving their wounded, horses, mules, wagons and some of their guns behind them. Two Confederate regiments disbanded and scattered to their homes, for the men, being

new to war, were easily discouraged. Thomas received the thanks of



WHITEHOUSE OF THE PLAINS

the President for his victory. The Confederates lost nearly twice as

many in killed and wounded as the Federals. The progress of the conflict at the West had so far been quite encouraging to the Union sympathizers.

When General Henry W. Halleck was placed in command of the Department of the Missouri, in November, 1861, he divided it into districts, giving to General Ulysses S. Grant the district of Cairo, which included Southern Illinois, the counties of Missouri south of Cape Girardeau, and all of Kentucky that lie west of the Cumberland river. The Cumberland and the Tennessee rivers are about ten miles apart where they enter Tennessee, and here, to command them, the Confederates placed two forts—Fort Henry, on the east bank of the Tennessee, and Fort Jefferson, on the west bank of the Cumberland. They had also fortified the high bluffs at Columbus, on the Mississippi, twenty miles below the mouth of the Ohio, and Bowling Green, on the Big Barren. General Grant asked permission to capture Fort Henry, and after considerable delay Halleck gave his consent. This fort was garrisoned by three thousand men, under General Lloyd Tilghman. It was not a strong work, bags of sand being largely used instead of solid earth embankment, but its position was fortunate. About it were ravines, through which little streamlets reached the river, and these were filled with timber and rifle pits. On the land side lay low, swampy ground. A fleet of iron-clad gunboats had been prepared by the United States Government for service on the western rivers, and on the morning of February 2, 1862, a fleet of four iron-clad and two wooden gunboats, commanded by Flag-officer Andrew H. Foote, steamed up the Tennessee until it was within sight of the fort. When it was within six hundred yards, a bombardment was opened, to which the guns of the fort promptly replied. The fire was kept up for an hour, and one of the boats, the *Essex*, received a shot in her boiler, by which many men were scalded or wounded. The heavy fire from the gunboats had telling effect upon the fort. The flag-staff was brought down, seven guns dismounted, and the sand-bags knocked out of place. At last a rifle gun in the fort burst. All but about one hundred of the garrison fled, and General Tilghman was left with a single company of artillerymen. He served a gun with his own hands as long as possible and then surrendered.

The Confederates, fearing that Fort Donelson would be the next point of attack, withdrew their force from Bowling Green, and joined it to that in Fort Donelson. National troops immediately took possession of Bowling Green and General Grant laid siege to Fort Donel-

son. This fort was on high ground, and enclosed one hundred acres. The land side was protected by slashed timber and rifle-pits, and there was a strong water battery on the lower river front. Within the fort

FEDERAL IRON-CLAD RIVER GUNBOAT.



were twenty thousand men, commanded by General John B. Floyd. On February 12th Grant chose his positions around Fort Donelson and the next morning opened fire. After both sides had used their artillery

for some time, an attempt was made to storm the works, which was unsuccessful. A dismal storm of sleet and snow set in. The gunboats and the troops with them had not yet arrived to Grant's assistance, and his men were obliged to sleep that night in the storm with the scantiest rations. Next morning the gunboats appeared, landed the troops and supplies, and then moved up to attack the water batteries. The fight that followed was a desperate one. The defense of the fort was managed with skill and bravery and the gunboats suffered terribly. At last the boats were so torn and weakened that they were obliged to drop down the stream out of the fight. At a council of war held within the fort that night it was decided to attack the besiegers in the morning with the entire force, and daylight had barely broken when the fighting was begun. It soon extended all along the line. The right wing of the National army was borne back, and the Confederate cavalry tried to gain their rear. Grant waited, with his usual calmness, until the attack was at its height. He then ordered a sudden counter-attack, and Generals Lew Wallace and C. F. Smith dashed forward, swept the works with their field guns, drove out the defenders, and took possession of the ground which they had previously lost. The night which followed was a bitter one, and the wounded could be but poorly cared for. A large number of the men within the fort took advantage of the darkness to hasten up the river to Nashville. In the morning a white flag was hung out, and a letter sent to Grant asking that commissioners be appointed to arrange terms of capitulation. Grant's reply was: "No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." The commander of the fort surrendered, and Grant's decisive and imperturbable words gave a feeling of security to the whole North. The people felt that there was at least one general in the field who accepted no compromises; who knew what he wanted and how to get it. The long artificial line of defence from the mountains to the Mississippi was now swept away.

In Missouri, there had been, since the very first opening of the war, a continual warfare. It was kept up between half-organized bodies of men who met by chance, and frequently dispersed after the encounter. Colonel James A. Mulligan held Lexington gallantly against the Confederates there in the autumn of 1861, and Halleck's men did some good work later in capturing newly-recruited Confederate regiments. A large number of these, under General Van Dorn, were in the north-western part of Arkansas. Some of the Union troops crossed the line

into Arkansas, chose a strong place on Pea Ridge, in the Ozark Mountains, and awaited attack. On March 8, 1862, Van Dorn moved to attack the Union troops, which were formed in a line on the bluffs along the creek facing southward. The battle lasted all day with heavy loss, but without much change of position, and on the following day it was renewed, and the Confederates finally put to rout. The Union loss was over thirteen hundred, the Confederate loss unknown. The nature of the ground was such that pursuit of Van Dorn's forces was impossible. A large number of Cherokee Indians had been engaged upon the side of the Confederates, but they could not stand the artillery, and, contenting themselves with a few scalps, hurried from the field.

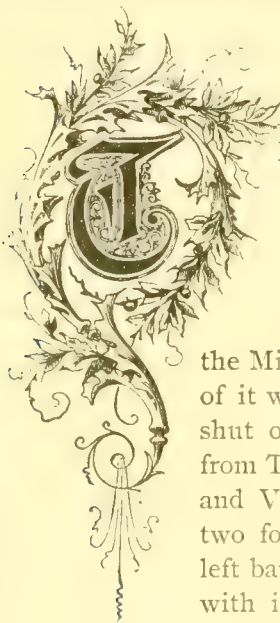
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Nickolay's "Outbreak of the Rebellion."
Glazier's "Battles for the Union."
Headley's "Grant and Sherman."
FICTION—W. Bradshaw's "Angel of the Battle Field."
E. Z. C. Judson's "Rattlesnake."
E. Z. C. Judson's "Sardis."
POETRY—H. H. Brownell's "War Lyrics."
"Capture of Fort Donelson."
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CHAPTER LXXXVII.

With Shot and Shell.

THE CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS—FIGHT BETWEEN THE “MONITOR”
AND THE “MERRIMAC.”



THE largest city in the territory of the Confederates was New Orleans. In 1860, it had a population of nearly one hundred and seventy thousand. In that same year it shipped twenty-five million dollars' worth of sugar, and ninety-two million dollars' worth of cotton. Moreover, it commanded the Mississippi, and it was easy to see that the possession of it would strike a great blow at the Confederacy, and shut off, or at least make it difficult to bring, supplies from Texas and Arkansas to feed the armies in Tennessee and Virginia. Between the sea and New Orleans were two forts. The smaller—Fort St. Philip—was on the left bank of the river, and was built of earth and brick, with its guns in plain sight on the top. The other—Fort Jackson—on the right bank, mounted seventy-five guns, fourteen of which were in bomb-proof casemates. The forts were garrisoned by about fifteen hundred men, commanded by General Johnson K. Duncan. A fleet of fifteen vessels, including an iron-clad ram, and a large floating battery, covered with railroad iron, protected them. Just below the forts a heavy chain was stretched across the river, supported by hulks anchored at intervals across the stream. Two hundred sharpshooters were placed upon the banks to give warning to the forts of the approach of any foe, or pick off any seen upon the decks. It was thought by Admiral David D. Porter that these forts might be reduced by throwing enormous shells into them, which should explode on striking. At his suggestion, twenty-one great mortars were cast and mounted on as many schooners. They threw shells thirteen inches in diameter, weighing two hundred and eighty-five pounds. The noise

when they were fired was so great that the gunners were absolutely deafened, and platforms had to be prepared at some distance, to which the gunners could leap just before firing. In addition to the schooners which carried the mortars, were six sloops of war, sixteen gunboats and five other vessels, besides transports carrying fifteen thousand troops, commanded by General B. F. Butler. The flag-ship of the fleet was the *Hartford*, a wooden steam sloop of war, two hundred and twenty-five feet long. It was the most powerful expedition that ever sailed under the American flag, and the man who commanded it was Captain David G. Farragut, who was quite unknown to the American public, although he was one of the oldest men in the navy. It was said that he could fill the place of any man in the fleet, and that there was no possible accident or contingency on shipboard which he could not cope with as well as any man living.

It was late in March when the fleet went in by Pass a l'Ouvre. The masts of the mortar schooners were trimmed off with bushes, so that they could not be told from the trees on shore, and were moored in the woods. A careful computation was made by which an effective fire could be sent from the mortars without the gunners seeing what they fired at, and, beginning on April 18, a steady bombardment was kept up for six days and nights. Six thousand shells—eight hundred tons of iron—were thrown in and around the forts, where they worked the most terrible destruction. But they did not silence the guns, and the forts held out bravely. In the midst of the bombardment, the Confederates sent several flatboats, loaded with dry wood, smeared with tar and turpentine and blazing furiously, down the stream among the fleet. But Farragut had anticipated this very thing, and had hooks prepared to tow them ashore, or take them past the fleet, where they could float out to sea. An attack was to be made on the forts in the night, and all the decks were painted white, that needed articles might be found with greater ease. Every spare chain was hung up and down the sides of the vessels, where they would protect the machinery from the enemy's shot. Farragut's plan was to run by the forts, injuring them as much as possible as he passed; capture the Confederate fleet, and hasten up the river to the city. At 3:30 o'clock in the morning of April 24, the fleet started. Four nights before, two gunboats had gone up the river and succeeded in cutting the chain across the river, making an opening wide enough for the fleet to pass through. Some of the gunboats engaged the water battery of Fort Jackson while the fleet went by. The first division consisted of eight

vessels, and was commanded by Captain Bailey, a sailor of as much experience as Farragut. He had soon passed Fort St. Philip, and found himself fighting with eleven Confederate vessels. The work which he did in the next few minutes is almost unequalled. He rammed some of the vessels, put shot into others, turned his huge swivel gun at others, exploded a shell in the boiler of one and finally passed the fort with his division. The second division, with the flag-ship *Hartford* leading, had yet more serious trouble. The *Hartford* was set on fire by a fire-raft, but her guns were loaded and fired as coolly as if nothing was the matter, and at last such a rain of shot was poured into Fort St. Philip



ADMIRAL DAVID FARRAGUT.

that the bastions were cleared, and the gunners could be seen running to shelter. A part of the third division became entangled among the hulks, and did not get by the chain, but three of the six gunboats came on bravely, burning two steamboats and driving another ashore on their way. On the morning of the 25th New Orleans was at the mercy of the National guns, and the unconditional surrender of the city was demanded. The stars and stripes were raised over the city, and in the midst of the greatest tumult General Farragut took possession of the city with two hundred and fifty marines. General Butler arrived there

with his forces on the 1st of May, and he kept possession of the city throughout the remainder of the war. When he came into it, it was turbulent, disorderly and mutinous. His rule of it was so stern that it has often been criticised severely, but he left it cleaner than it had ever been before, and in order and comfort.

While the naval expedition which conquered New Orleans was on



GENERAL BENJAMIN BUTLER.

its way, the waters of Hampton Roads, from which it sailed, were the scene of that famous battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, which revolutionized naval warfare. The *Merrimac* was a great steam frigate, with a high hull and a steep roof covered with wrought iron five inches thick, with a lining of oak seven inches thick. The sides

of the ram were also plated with iron, and the bow was armed with an iron ram something like a huge plowshare. Ten guns looked out from the dormer windows in her roof. She was under the command of Franklin Buchanan, and on the 8th of March, accompanied by two gunboats, she went out to raise the blockade of the James and Elizabeth rivers, by destroying the wooden war vessels in Hampton Roads. She first met the frigate *Cumberland*, which gave her a dreadful broadside, but though some of the shot entered her open ports and broke two of her guns, all that struck her armor rattled off her like hail off a roof. She ran her iron prow into the *Cumberland*, and that vessel at once began to settle. Her commander would not surrender, however, and the crew stood by their guns, firing broadside after broadside, until the vessel went down with her colors still flying. When the frigate had reached the bottom, her top-mast still projected above the surface, with the American flag upon it. Such of the men as were not wounded leaped overboard at the last minute, and got ashore with the help of the boats. When the *Merrimac* had completed the destruction of this vessel she attacked the *Congress* and finally set her on fire.

The next morning the *Merrimac* undertook to finish up the fleet, but at the opening of her operations was met by a new antagonist. It was a small iron vessel, looking, as the men said, "like a cheese-box on a raft." Nothing appeared above the water except the flat iron surface over which the waves washed, and a revolving iron-clad turret in which there was one gun. This was the *Monitor*, built by John Ericsson, and commanded by Captain John L. Worden. This little vessel had just been hurried into Hampton Roads, after a stormy and dangerous passage, when she met the *Merrimac*. She placed herself between the wooden ships and the great *Merrimac*, and a fight of four hours followed. The broadsides from the monstrous iron ship had little effect upon the saucy *Monitor*. At times the vessels almost touched each other. The *Monitor* drew less water than the *Merrimac*, and could steam quite around her. By afternoon the *Merrimac* withdrew to Norfolk, and did not come down to fight again. A little later she was abandoned and blown up. Eight months later the plucky little *Monitor* foundered in a gale off Cape Hatteras.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Soley's "The Blockade and the Cruisers."
 Ammen's "The Atlantic Coast."
 Parton's "General Butler in New Orleans."
 Peckham's "General Lyon and Missouri in 1861."
 FICTION—L. M. Childs' "A Romance of the Republic."
 C. C. Coffin's "Winning His Way."
 J. E. Cooke's "Hilt to Hilt."
 POETRY—E. J. Butler's "War Poems."

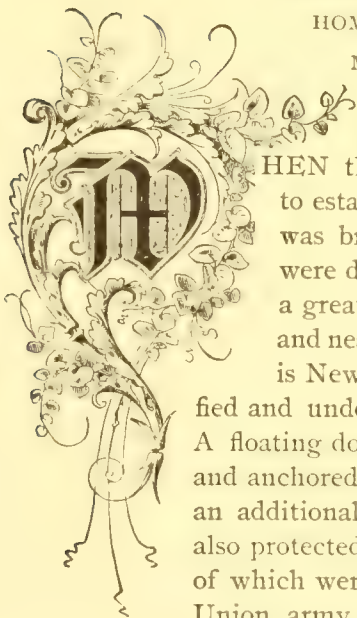


THE "AMERICA" SINKING THE "CUMBERLAND"

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

Shiloh and its Sequel.

THE CAMPAIGN AT ISLAND NO. 10—THE BATTLE OF SHILOH—SIEGE
OF CORINTH—THE CONFLICT AT THE EAST UNDER M'CLEL-
LAN—SIEGE OF YORKTOWN—THE BATTLE OF
WILLIAMSBURG—THE BATTLE OF SEVEN
PINES—BATTLE OF CHICKA-
HOMINY—BATTLE OF
MALVERN HILL.



WHEN the first line that the Confederates had tried to establish from the mountains to the Mississippi was broken through, their forces at Columbus were drawn down the river to $36^{\circ} 30'$. Here, in a great curve of the Mississippi, is Island No. 10, and near it, in a second bend on the Missouri side, is New Madrid. Both of these places were fortified and under the direction of General Leonidas Polk. A floating dock had been brought up from New Orleans and anchored near the island. Eight gunboats furnished an additional guard. The works on the island were also protected by batteries on the Tennessee shore, back of which were impassable swamps. The desire of the Union army was to break through this new line of defence, and early in March a large force, commanded by

General John Pope, moved down the west bank of the Mississippi against New Madrid. Trenches for field guns were sunken under cover of darkness at a point below New Madrid, and sharpshooters placed at the edge of the bank to harass the passing gunboats and transports. Four large siege guns were taken across the city and over a long stretch of swampy ground, and placed in position to bombard the works. On the 13th of March, 1862, New Madrid was evacuated, and the Union forces hastened to take possession and arrange their guns so as to

command the river. On the 16th, five Confederate gunboats attacked these batteries, but were damaged so that they soon drew off. On the 16th and 17th the Union fleet of gunboats under Commodore Andrew H. Foote, engaged the batteries at Island No. 10, and a hundred heavy guns were in action at one time. The great and treacherous stream washing about the ramparts had weakened some of them so that the balls went straight through them, but the artillery men stood to their guns ankle-deep in water, undaunted in the midst of exploding shells. The attack was kept up from day to day; many men were killed upon both sides, but no decisive effect was produced. A canal was finally cut across the peninsula formed by the bend of the river above New Madrid. This canal was twelve miles long, and half of the distance lay through a deep forest, standing in water, and the trunks of the trees had to be sawed off four or five feet below the surface. Notwithstanding these difficulties, a channel fifty feet wide and four feet deep was finally completed, and on the night of April 14th a gunboat ran past the batteries of Island No. 10, escaping serious damage. On the 7th, Pope crossed in force, protected by the gunboat which had gone through the canal, and intercepted the greater part of the Confederate troops, which were now trying to escape southward. Pope captured three generals, two hundred and seventy-three officers and six thousand seven hundred men, besides one hundred and fifty-eight guns, seven thousand muskets, and a quantity of naval stores and equipments.

On this very day, in Southwestern Tennessee, was being fought one of the bloodiest battles of the war, that of Shiloh. At Corinth, in Northern Mississippi, the Memphis and Charleston railroad crosses the Mobile and Ohio. This made the point of the greatest importance, and it was strongly fortified by a Confederate force under General Albert Sidney Johnson. Under him were Generals Beauregard, Bragg and Hardee.

General Grant determined to move against the place and capture it. On Sunday, April 6th, Grant's main force was at Pittsburg Landing, and divisions, under General Lew Wallace and General Buell, were within reach. Early on the morning of the 6th, Johnson made two sudden attacks upon Grant. Grant's line was two miles long, with General Prentiss' division on the left, McClernand's in the centre, and Sherman's on the right. They had no intrenchments, but the ground was undulating, with patches of woods among the fields, and about the little church of Shiloh was a ridge. Such protection as the ground afforded they took advantage of. The attack began at day-break. The

Confederates were sure of success, and fought with the enthusiasm which such a mood will produce. Grant sent for Wallace and Buell, but they did not bring up their forces until night. The Union troops fought every inch of ground, but were forced back, little by little. Sherman's men were crowded back more than a mile, but still clung around the bridge over which they were expecting Lew Wallace to come to their aid. The same ground was charged over again and again until it was simply incumbered with the dead. General Albert Sidney Johnson, upon the side of the Confederates, was killed, and the command fell upon General Beauregard. General Sherman had several horses killed under him, and was three times hit with bullets, but he stayed on the battle field till the end. General Prentiss and twenty-two hundred of his men were captured by the Confederates, but Grant hastened to get twenty guns into position, and finally forced the Confederate column at that point to retire. Many of the Union men in this engagement were under fire for the first time, and the terrors of the battle completely unnerved them, and as there was no way of escaping beyond the river, they huddled upon the bank, frightened beyond the power to move. At night, Beauregard discontinued the attack, intending to renew it in the morning and complete his victory. Lew Wallace was now in position, and Buell's army was being brought across the Tennessee.

In the midst of the night a fire sprang up in the woods, and threatened for a time to add to the miseries of Shiloh by roasting many of the wounded alive, but a providential rain fell and extinguished it. In the morning, both armies prepared for fight—both of them desperate, wet and fatigued. Beauregard made a stubborn fight for the purpose of holding the road which ran by Shiloh Church, and by which alone he could conduct an orderly retreat. The death of Johnson had plunged the Confederates in hopeless confusion, and the men were melancholy and dispirited. Sherman advanced his command and recaptured his camps. Grant and Beauregard each led a charge with two regiments which had lost their commanders. Beauregard's failed, but Grant launched his men with a ringing cheer against the Confederate line and broke it. Beauregard had no choice but to make as soldierly a retreat as possible, while Grant captured nearly as many guns on the second day as he had lost on the first. The roads were too heavy and the men too exhausted to pursue Beauregard's force. The loss on both sides had been terrible. General Grant says that four thousand was the estimate of the burial parties for the whole field.

After the battle, General Halleck took command in person and laid siege to Corinth to capture it by regular approaches. Both he and Beauregard were reinforced till each had about one hundred thousand men. Halleck closed about the place, till in the night of May 29th Beauregard evacuated it and Sherman's soldiers were ordered into the town. It was believed by many that the battle of Shiloh decided the fate of the Confederacy.

But it is necessary now to return to the campaign at the East. General George B. McClellan had been put in command of the Army of the Potomac. He had acquitted himself with distinction in the Mexican war, was a graduate of West Point, a thorough student of engineering, and had been given every advantage which the Government could afford. Under his direction Washington was well fortified, and the fifty thousand men at the capital soon swelled to one hundred thousand, organized thoroughly and working in perfect correspondence. Having got his men in this excellent state of drill, McClellan rested. The summer passed and then the autumn, but no movement was made. He had done his work so well up to this time that the people had confidence in him, and believed that he was only waiting for the fortunate moment to fall upon the Confederate capital and subdue it. But day after day went by, and no news came from his army except that "all was quiet on the Potomac."

The Confederacy was growing stronger every day, and the Potomac was being closed to navigation by the building of batteries on the southern bank. The enemy's flag could be seen from the Capital, and the question of interference by the treacherous Louis Napoleon was agitating the statesmen. At this time General Winfield Scott, who was seventy-five years of age, begged leave to retire from the responsibilities of the army, and McClellan succeeded him as Commander-in-chief of all the armies. In vain did President Lincoln urge McClellan to move. That general constantly called for more men, and under-estimated the number which he had. He also over-estimated the men upon the opposite side. The President finally called him to a council, and asked him to disclose his plan for the campaign, but this McClellan refused to do. A few days later, however, he wrote the President that his intention was to move his army down the Potomac on transports, land it at Fort Monroe, and march up to attack the defences of Richmond on the north and east sides. The President did not approve of this plan, but on consulting with various generals, concluded to permit it. The Confederate general, Joseph Johnston, who had commanded at

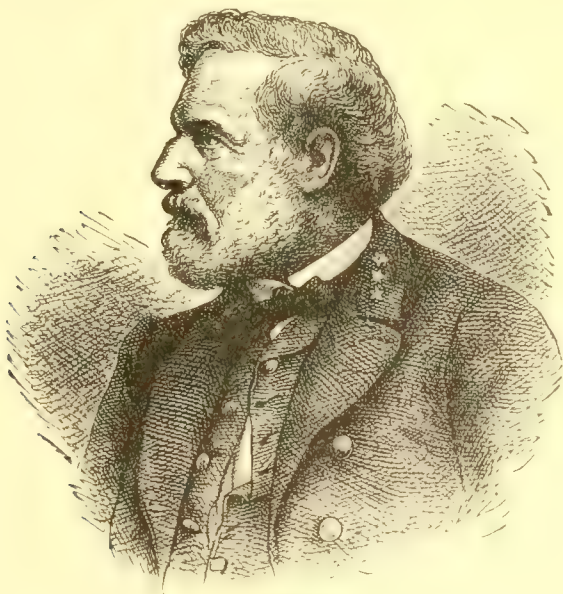
Bull Run, and had kept his army within easy marching distance of Washington ever since, now hastened to place his troops before Richmond. On the 27th of February, 1862, McClellan's army was moved down the Potomac on four hundred vessels. It numbered one hundred and twenty-one thousand men and these were divided into four corps, the commands of which were given to Generals McDowell, Sumner, Heintzelman and Keyes. On the 2d of April McClellan moved upon Yorktown, where the Confederates had a strong defence of earthworks. The plan of the Confederates was simply to delay McClellan at Yorktown till the defences at the Confederate capital could be strengthened. McClellan supposed that Johnston's entire army was in the defences at Yorktown, and he approached the place by regular parallels, according to the laborious methods of a well-sustained siege. He spent nearly a month here, and when he was ready to open fire with the siege guns, he found that the enemy had quietly departed, leaving "Quaker guns" (wooden logs on wheels) in the embrasures. McClellan hastened in pursuit, and overtook the Confederate rear about twelve miles from Yorktown, bringing about the battle of Williamsburg. The place had been well fortified months before, and the Confederates took advantage of this. The Union soldiers attacked the earthworks and silenced the batteries. General Hancock's sixteen hundred men suddenly burst over the crest of the works, and charged upon the enemy with fixed bayonets, forcing them back. The Confederates moved off in the night to join their main army, leaving four hundred of their wounded behind them, and taking away about as many prisoners. McClellan now pushed on to White House, at the head of York river, and established a base of supplies. From this point he moved westward toward Richmond, expecting to be joined by a column of forty thousand men under McDowell, but Stonewall Jackson made one of his brilliant raids from the heart of the Shenandoah valley, and McDowell was obliged to go in pursuit of him.

McClellan reached the Chickahominy river and fought two small battles at Mechanicsville and Hanover Junction. A portion of his army had been swung across the Chickahominy and Johnston determined to strike this detached wing. In the midst of a heavy rain on the night of May 30th, he fell upon this division. This was within half a dozen miles of Richmond. The Union troops were behind some half-finished works and resisted the charge bravely, but the Confederates succeeded in gaining a position in the rear of the redoubts, and it looked for a time as if their opponents could not hold their line. Keyes

was in command of the Union forces, and after a time Sumner's men succeeded in crossing the river and joining him. Sumner was the oldest officer in the command, but his sixty-six years did not keep him from being energetic. When he heard the fire on the other side he drew up his men in line, anticipating the order which came. There was but one bridge over the river, and the water was swollen so that many of the supports were washed away and it swung backward and forward with the rushing waters, but over this the men walked, their heavy weight steadying it somewhat, and all reached the other side in safety. Sumner was just in time to save Keyes, and succeeded in repelling the numerous charges of the Confederates and driving them off at last in confusion. The battle is known as that of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines. It cost the Union army over five thousand men and the Confederates nearly seven thousand. General Johnston was so wounded that he was unable to take active command for a long time. It was the wet season, and several weeks followed without either army being able to move. The ground was made up of alternate layers of clay and quicksand, which turned into a swamp under the rain, and the guns sank into the earth by their own weight. McClellan kept calling for reinforcements, which he did not need, but these could not be given him. His position was very unfortunate, for his men were dying of malaria by the hundred, and his supplies were constantly imperiled by the swelling of the Chickahominy, which made every bridge insecure.

The command of the Confederate forces in Virginia was now under General Robert E. Lee. His plan was to bring large bodies of troops from North Carolina, Georgia and the Shenandoah valley to fall upon McClellan. The total number of his army is said to have been eighty thousand seven hundred and sixty-two. McClellan had ninety-two thousand five hundred. Lee was curious to know the extent of McClellan's earthworks, and sent a body of one thousand two hundred cavalry with two light guns to reconnoitre. This was commanded by General E. B. Stuart, one of the most dashing of the Confederate officers, who distinguished himself by wearing a gay costume, with yellow sash and black plume, and pricking his white horse with golden spurs. He made the entire circuit of McClellan's army, rebuilding a bridge to cross the lower Chickahominy, and reached Richmond in safety. McClellan was aroused to the danger of his position, and decided to make the James river his base. Stonewall Jackson filled in the weary days by a series of swift and brilliant movements, which charmed his friends and bewildered his enemies. He was selected by

Lee to keep up these mysterious movements for the purpose of misleading McClellan. Secretary Stanton, one of the most careful and efficient war secretaries that ever lived, surmised that there was little significance in these movements, and advised the general of his impression. The various misconceptions arising from these movements led to McClellan's defeat at the battle of Chickahominy, which was fought on the 27th of June. But though the Union forces were driven from their position in this engagement, the loss among the Confederates was much the larger. McClellan now retreated through the swamp roads with his long trains, destroying hundreds of tons of ammunition and



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE

millions of rations before his departure. The Confederates hastened after the Union army and attacked the rear guard. Three times they assaulted and were three times repelled. After a rest they made another attack at sunset on the 28th, and advanced with a rush, but were obliged to retreat. The Union army moved slowly on, and after this defence were obliged to burn another immense quantity of food and clothing, and to leave twenty-five hundred sick and wounded men behind. Then a detachment of the Confederate army, under Hill and Longstreet, crossed the Chickahominy, marched around the Great White Oak swamp, through which the Union forces were passing, and struck

the retreating army near Charles City Cross-road on the 30th. A terrible engagement followed. Never were there bloodier repulses or more daring attacks. The losses in men are not exactly known, but they were very large. McClellan's army, however, continued to retreat to Malvern Hill, where a last stand was made. This is a plateau on the James river, having an elevation of about six hundred feet, and an extent of about one mile and a half in one direction, and a mile in the other. It is surrounded by streams and swamps in such a manner as to leave no practical approach except by the narrow northwest face. Here McClellan placed his entire army in the form of a semi-circle, and waited for the enemy. His whole front bristled with artillery, and the men found considerable shelter behind the natural inequalities of the ground. Lee's men came on, excited by their successes of the week past, and confident that they would win. They advanced their artillery and began a bold attack, but their batteries were knocked to pieces in a few minutes. The cavalry were thrown into confusion by the shells from the gunboats, and rushed headlong among the infantry, breaking up the whole attack. On the afternoon of July 1st, Lee renewed the assault with his whole army, but was repulsed with such a bloody fire, that the men began to protest against renewing the attack. The fighting was kept up till 9 o'clock in the evening, and cost Lee five thousand men. The Union loss was but one-third of this number. McClellan withdrew his army in the night to Harrison's Landing, on the James, where the gunboats could protect his position. This retreat is known as the Seven Days. McClellan's campaign was admitted to be a failure. Why it was so has been a subject discussed by the people of the North from that time to this. As a disciplinarian he was the most efficient general in the army. He was a master of engineering and a man of personal bravery, but he lacked decision. He was over-careful. It should be remembered, however, that it is not the men of his command who make this criticism.

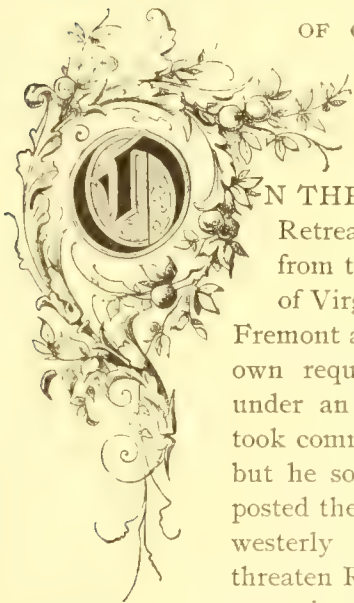
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Allen's "Gen. Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley."
 Welb's "The Peninsula."
 Coppee's "Grant and His Campaign."
 Edge's "McClellan and Yorktown Campaign."
 Jonville's "Army of the Potomac."
 Ree's "Hospital Life in Potomac Army."
 Swinton's "McClellan's Military Career."
 FICTION—"Surrey of Eagle's Nest."
 W. A. Cruse's "Cameron Hall."
 POETRY—Stedman's "Kearney at Seven Pines."

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

Close of the Peninsula Campaign.

THE ARMY OF VIRGINIA UNDER THE COMMAND OF POPE—GENERAL HALLECK MADE GENERAL-IN-CHIEF—BATTLE OF CEDAR MOUNTAIN—M'CLELLAN LEAVES THE PENINSULA—BATTLE OF GROVETON—LOSS OF GENERALS STEVENS AND KEARNEY.



ON THE 26th of June, the first of the Seven Days' Retreat, General John Pope, who had been called from the West, was put in command of the Army of Virginia, composed of the corps of McDowell, Fremont and Banks. Fremont was removed, at his own request, because he objected to being placed under an officer whom he outranked. When Pope took command of the army it was widely scattered, but he soon brought the forces nearer together and posted them in a line forty miles long, running north-westerly from Fredericksburg. His plan was to threaten Richmond, thereby compelling Lee to detail a portion of his army from McClellan's front, but

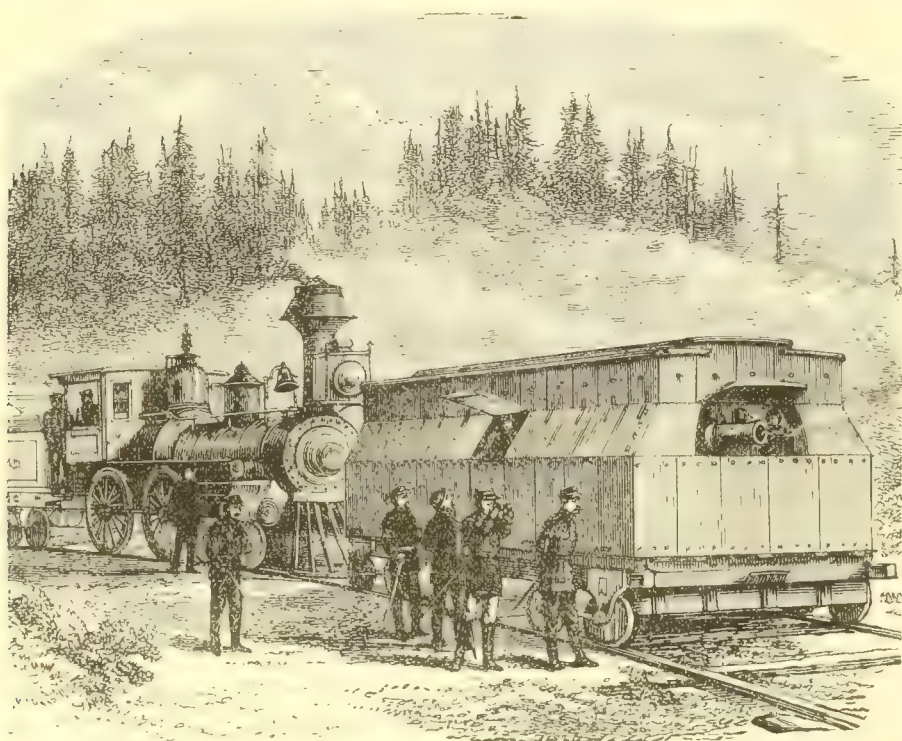
when McClellan retreated to James River this movement was necessarily postponed. The Administration soon saw that it would be impossible for McClellan and Pope to work together, so widely did their ideas differ upon the conduct of the campaign, and General Halleck was called from the West and made General-in-chief of all the armies of the Union. On July 23, 1862, he assumed command. He was a man of wide military knowledge, but from the first his ideas seemed to be obscure and impracticable, and his wide military learning hampered rather than benefited the armies under him. Pope cheered his army with a ringing address, in which there were some allusions to McClellan's conduct of the campaign which won him many enemies. He

said: "I have come from the West, where we have always seen the backs of our enemies, from an army whose policy has been attack, not defense," and his immediate plans were to advance upon Gordonsville, a place commanding the railroad communications with the far South and Southwest. It was hoped by these means to draw a considerable part of Lee's army away from Richmond, and thus aid any movement by the Army of the Potomac against the rebel capital. Lee at once saw the danger of this threatened movement, and sent Jackson, with two divisions, to Gordonsville, with the promise of reinforcements. Jackson found Pope too strong to warrant him in acting on the offensive, and contented himself with merely occupying Gordonsville. A fortnight passed quietly, and it was then learned that General Burnside's corps had sailed from North Carolina, and arrived at Fortress Monroe; thence, instead of going to McClellan, on the James, it had gone to the Rappahannock. On July 27th, Lee reinforced Jackson, at Gordonsville. Jackson then moved northward. Pope had already begun to move southward, and, quite by accident, the advance of the two armies came into collision on August 9th, at Cedar Mountain, twenty miles north of Gordonsville. Banks had eight thousand men, and the column of Confederates attacking him had about the same number. For a while the fight was in favor of the Union troops, but when rebel reinforcements came up, Banks was driven back, hotly pursued by the enemy. Pope was a few miles away with the bulk of his force. He hurried up as soon as possible, and checked the attack by nightfall. Two days passed with the armies facing each other, and neither caring to attack. Jackson then learned that the Union troops had reinforcements and fell back across the Rapidan. The Rebel loss at Cedar Mountain is given at thirteen hundred and fourteen, the Union loss at nineteen hundred.

Meanwhile McClellan held a strong position at Harrison's Landing, where, if he did nothing else, he was a menace to Richmond, so that Lee dared not draw his army from its defense. Lee was very anxious to get McClellan off the Peninsula so that he could strike out toward Washington. He therefore sent a detachment to bombard McClellan's camp from the opposite side of the river. But this McClellan easily swept away. Then Lee appointed Jackson to make a series of erratic movements through the country for the express purpose of alarming the Administration at Washington so that they would order McClellan's army to leave the Peninsula. The commander-in-chief, Halleck, fell into the trap laid, and McClellan's army was ordered to evacuate the

Peninsula, and, as has been said, Burnside's troops—which were intended for McClellan in the first place—were sent on to Pope. McClellan marched his army to Fortress Monroe, and there embarked it by divisions for the same destination. Within a week after the battle of Cedar Mountain, Lee, seeing that McClellan was leaving the Peninsula, forwarded Longstreet's division and a part of Hood's to Gordonsville, and prepared to follow with his entire army. As Jackson and Longstreet advanced across the Rapidan river, Pope fell back beyond the Rappahannock. Here Burnside's troops reached him. When Lee came up with the remainder of his army and found it impossible to cross the Rappahannock in front of Pope, he sent Jackson to make a flank march westward along that stream, cross it at Silver Springs, and come down upon Pope's right. But Jackson found that a heavy force was already at Silver Springs ready to meet him. Meanwhile, the dashing General Stuart, with fifteen hundred cavalry, crossed the river on the stormy night of the 22d, and guided by a negro, dashed through the darkness and the rain upon the tents occupied by Pope's staff. Some of these were made prisoners, and Stuart secured Pope's dispatch book containing exact information of the number and position of the forces then with him, and the reinforcements promised him and also the direction from which they were to come. The Confederate generals saw that if their army could be flung upon Pope's rear, his communications might be cut off, and his army routed before it could be reinforced by McClellan, with the Army of the Potomac. This movement, to be successful, must be a surprise, and it was necessary to make it with men unincumbered with trains. To do this, Lee had to divide his force for at least four days, in the face of the enemy. The initial movement was given to Jackson, who began his march on the morning of August 25th. With nothing but his artillery to hamper him, he moved quickly through the narrow valley on the east side of the Bull Run Mountains, by every short cut which the fields permitted. At midnight he reached the head of Thoroughfare Gap, through which the mountains must be passed. It was a gap that might have been held by a handful of men against thousands, but Jackson found it wholly unguarded, and on the morning of the 27th, passed through and headed for Bristoe Station, an important point on the railroad, which formed Pope's main source of supply. Jackson left General Ewell here, and himself went northward to Manassas Junction, where there was a great depot of stores almost unguarded. These were taken, and what could not be consumed on the spot were destroyed. Pope learned, meanwhile, of what was going

on and sent a detachment toward Bristoe. In the encounter which followed Ewell was worsted. Pope was now thoroughly aroused and Jackson's position was a critical one. Jackson saw that he might be attacked by vastly superior numbers, and he fell back toward Thoroughfare Gap. Not wishing to show what his ultimate destination was to be, he took up a defensive position upon the spot where the battle of Bull Run had been fought more than a year before. The position was a strong one and had the advantage of a deep cut which formed the bed



A RAILROAD BATTERY.

of an abandoned railroad. This could be used as an intrenchment. Here the battle was opened, on the morning of the 29th, and from daylight till after dark the Union troops led the attack and the Confederates stoutly stood to the defense. As night closed in Pope believed that Jackson was retreating, although Jackson was only withdrawing a part of his line to join with Longstreet's reinforcements. Pope was also reinforced on the morning of the 30th, and ordered McDowell to press on in pursuit. Then the Union troops learned that Jackson had

not been retreating, when the Confederates presented a solid front, and the entire force on both sides was engaged in a hot conflict. All through the day, first one and then the other of the divisions on both sides were repulsed, only to reform and renew the attack. In the end the Union army was defeated, though not routed, and it retreated in good order across the Bull Run, and fell back to Centreville. This engagement is sometimes known as the second battle of Bull Run, but oftener as the battle of Groveton. The entire Confederate loss for the three days was eight thousand four hundred and ten in killed and wounded. The Union loss was not less than eleven thousand. Lee says that he took seven thousand unwounded prisoners. Pope confessed that there was terrible straggling among the Union troops, and that thousands of men left their commands and were never in any action. The result of the action, though not discouraging to the supporters of the Union cause, showed rather conclusively that Pope had been outgeneraled by Jackson.

In spite of the fierce storm that raged through the 31st, Jackson pursued the Union troops across Bull Run. McDowell and Heintzelman were sent to oppose him, and the forces met at Chantilly on September 1st. There was a slight encounter in the twilight, and in it were lost two of the most efficient Union generals, Stevens and Phil Kearney. Kearney had ridden forward to reconnoitre, and coming suddenly upon a squad of Confederates, was shot. He had lost an arm in the Mexican War, was with Napoleon III at Solferino and Magenta, and had just passed through the Peninsula campaign with McClellan.

The battle of Groveton brought about one of the most distressing incidents of the war. General Fitz-John Porter was removed from command because he did not obey orders, and move to support Pope when he was commanded to do so. It will be remembered that Jackson was opposed to Pope in a parallel line, and that Longstreet had come up to reinforce Jackson. Pope did not know this, but Porter did, and he feared to leave his position, when by doing so Longstreet could turn Pope's left flank. Thousands of pages have been written concerning the matter, and most writers on the subject have agreed that Porter deserved the severe punishment which he received. He was court-martialed, degraded from his position, and forbidden to hold any office of trust or remuneration under the United States Government. Some reparation has been made in later years, however, and General Grant, in reviewing the subject, finally declared that he did not believe Porter to

be at fault. After the affair at Chantilly, Lee made no further attempt on Pope's army, and on September 2d, by Halleck's orders, it was withdrawn to the fortifications at Washington, where it was merged in the Army of the Potomac. The losses in the campaign are unknown.

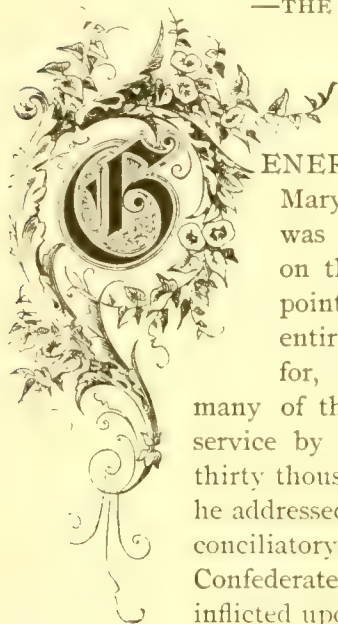
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY**—Gilmore's "Four Years in the Saddle."
Hepworth's "Whip, Hoe and Sword."
Kirkland's "Anecdotes of the Rebellion."
Oats' "Prison Life in Dixie."
FICTION—Cobb's "Veteran of the Grand Army."
A. C. Denson's "Westmoreland."
Fuller's "Browning's."
J. R. Gilmore's "Among the Guerrillas."

CHAPTER XC.

The Bloody Field of Antietam.

LEE'S ARMY MOVES NORTHWARD—THE BATTLE OF SOUTH MOUNTAIN
—THE BATTLE OF ANTIETAM.



GENERAL LEE now pushed northward into Maryland, with his whole army. The movement was commenced on the third of September, and on the fifth the army crossed the Potomac at a point thirty miles above Washington. The entire force was not more than sixty thousand, for, aside from losses by sickness and death, many of the Confederates were debarred from active service by fatigue. In six weeks Lee had lost fully thirty thousand men. When he reached Frederick City he addressed the people of Maryland in a paternal and conciliatory manner, telling them that the people of the Confederate States had long watched the wrongs inflicted upon the citizens of a commonwealth to which they were bound by so many ties, and wished to aid them in throwing off this foreign yoke. A call for recruits to the Confederate army was made, but less than five hundred Marylanders responded to this appeal, and the towns through which Lee passed showed closed blinds and deserted streets. It was evident that the Confederate armies were not welcome in Maryland. Most of those who had sympathized with the cause of the South had already joined the Confederate armies, but the greater part of the fighting men of Maryland were enlisted with the national forces. The Confederate army was in the most miserable state. It was ragged, dirty, footsore, and, no doubt, heartily homesick. But there was no lack of bravery; indeed, it was a standing joke that bravery was the cheapest thing among them. Had their cause been righteous, the spectacle of this suffering army would have been

sublime. As it was, it was simply pitiable. Rags and misery dignify a noble cause, but they can only accent the mistakes of an unrighteous one.

McClellan rapidly re-organized his army, and in less than a week had one hundred and seventy-two thousand men, of whom one hundred thousand were to form the movable force, and the rest to be kept for the defense of Washington. Banks was placed in command of the fortifications at the capital. On the seventh of September McClellan moved toward Lee, whose force he estimated at just twice its actual number. On the tenth Lee move northwestward, his immediate destination being Hagerstown. To reach this, he had to cross the South mountains, a steep range, one thousand feet high, cut through to a depth of four hundred feet by Turner's and Crampton's Gaps. These gaps were six miles apart. The national forces reached Frederick on the twelfth, and McClellan accidentally came into possession of a copy of General Lee's order book, which contained the movements and operations of the next few days. In this book McClellan learned that Lee intended to take possession of the heights around Harper's Ferry, where fourteen hundred raw national troops guarded the United States arsenal. The ferry is in a narrow valley, at the junction of the Potomac and Shenandoah. Upon three sides are the heights. If these were occupied, it would be subjected to a fire to which there could be no effective reply. Jackson's corps, now fifteen thousand strong, was to pass through Turner's Gap, make a wide detour, cross the Potomac above the ferry, and, going down the river, seize Bolivar Heights on the west. A part of Longstreet's corps was to go by way of Crampton's Gap, and seize Maryland Heights on the east; while yet another detachment was to move up the Potomac and seize London Heights on the south. When Harper's Ferry was captured, the whole army was to be re-united at Hagerstown.

McClellan had reason to be gratified at the reception which he met at Frederick. But the serious work before him left him no time to enjoy the festivities prepared for him. Walker had already gained Loudon Heights. Maryland Heights were also occupied. Miles, who commanded the force at Harper's Ferry, remained stupidly in the trap, and was obliged to consent to Jackson's terms of unconditional surrender. More than fifteen thousand men laid down their arms, and were at once paroled. The Confederates also gained a large number of guns and muskets. Jackson's own division was allowed no time for rest, but was ordered to join Lee, who was hard pressed fifteen miles away. They began their march at midnight, and in the grey of the seventeenth.

such of the men as had held out joined Lee, and were given their places in line of battle. What had happened with Lee was this: He had learned that McClellan knew of his plans, and realized, of course, that he would try to thwart them. McClellan arrived at Turner's and Crampton's Gaps on the morning of the 14th. Lee had learned of his movements, and had a defence at each gap. Turner's Gap was flanked by two old roads that crossed the mountain a mile north and south of it. Using these and clambering up from rock to rock, the Union troops reached the crests, opposed at every step by the Confederate riflemen between the trees and ledges. There was a bloody and persistent fight all day, with the Union forces constantly gaining ground, and at dark the field was won. The Confederates withdrew in the night, and in the morning the victorious columns passed through to the western side of the mountain. In this battle McClellan lost fifteen hundred men killed or wounded. The Confederates lost about the same number, and in addition fifteen hundred were made prisoners. The fight at Crampton's Gap was quite similar. These two actions, fought September 14, 1862, are known as the Battle of South Mountain.

Lee then withdrew across Antietam creek, and took up a strong position beyond that stream. Lee's army numbered now only a little over forty thousand. The stragglers were numerous and with little wonder. Lee might console himself, however, with the reflection, that the men who had stood by him were his best men, and that he could bring the very flower of his forces into the coming battle. The Antietam was crossed by four stone bridges and a ford, and all except the most northern bridge were strongly guarded. The ground consisted of rich meadows, dotted with cornfields and groves. On the 16th McClellan threw his right wing across the Antietam by the northern unguarded bridge, intending to engage the enemy's attention there, and thus to force the other bridges and cross with his forces. An artillery duel was kept up through the day across the creek, in which the Confederate generals acknowledged that their batteries were no match for their opponents. The skirmish brought on by Hooker's crossing the upper bridge was soon ended by the gathering darkness, and the men rested where they were. In the night McClellan sent reinforcements to Hooker. Sumner was put in readiness to follow at an early hour, and preparations for a battle were made. Meanwhile Lee had also made his preparations. All but two thousand of his forces had come up, and when the morning of September 17th dawned, Hooker assaulted Johnston at sunrise. A more beautiful spot could hardly have been imagined,

or a more peaceful one. But now it was desecrated by two determined armies, both bent upon a battle, in which there could be no surprises, no shirking or evading—nothing but misery and death. Early in the day Hooker was seriously wounded and taken from the field, while Sumner crossed the stream and came up with his corps. His men drove back the enemy, and were apparently advancing to victory, when two fresh divisions were brought over from the Confederate ranks and thrust in a gap in Sumner's line. The Confederates were driven back to their former position after a bloody struggle, and fighting of this sort went on all forenoon. Lee was forced to bring into action every available man, while on the other side Porter and Burnside, with their strong divisions, lay idly by and were not called into action. It was 4 o'clock in the afternoon before Burnside led his men across the Antietam to aid in the attack. He succeeded in gaining a strong position where he could enfilade the Confederate lines. But at this moment General A. P. Hill came up from Harper's Ferry with four thousand men. These flung themselves fiercely into the attack, and Burnside's corps fled in disorder to the creek, which they crossed the next morning. The entire Union loss in the bloody battle of Antietam was two thousand and ten killed, nine thousand four hundred and sixteen wounded and one thousand and forty-three missing. The entire Confederate loss was not less than twenty thousand.

This terrible destruction of life had been almost useless. The battle of Antietam was not a decisive one, but it was very encouraging to the North, and President Lincoln, emboldened by it, put forth a hint of the proclamation of the abolition of slavery, saying that if on the first of the ensuing January the Rebellion should still continue, he should, in virtue of his power as Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, order and declare that all persons held as slaves in the rebellious sections were to be free from that time forever, and that the Executive Government of the United States should recognize and maintain their freedom; and, also, that such persons of suitable condition should be received into the armed service of the United States.

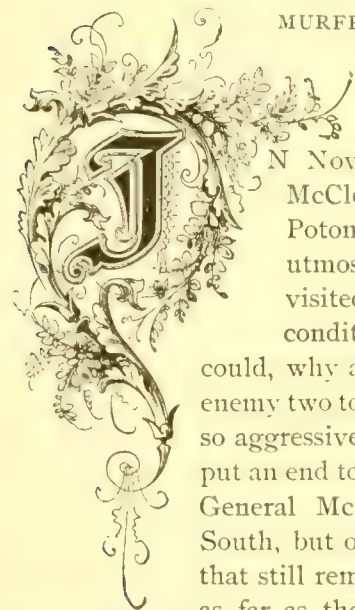
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Banvard's "Tragic Scenes in the History of Maryland."
 Logan's "Great Conspiracy."
 Williams' "Negro Troops in the Rebellion."
 FICTION—Mrs. R. Hare's "Standish."
 J. H. Hosmer's "Thinking Bayonet."
 S. Lanier's "Tiger Lilies."
 J. H. Mathew's "Guy Hamilton."
 POETRY—G. W. Herve's "Ballads of the War."
 E. V. Mason's "Southern Poetry of the War."
 H. Melville's "Battle Pieces."

CHAPTER XCI.

“All Us Niggahs is Free!”

BURNSIDE MADE COMMANDER OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC—THE
BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG—THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMA-
TION—BATTLES OF PERRYVILLE, IUKA, CORINTH,
MURFREESBORO AND CHAN-
CELLORVILLE.



IN November, 1862, General Burnside succeeded McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac. President Lincoln had shown the utmost patience with McClellan. Twice he had visited his headquarters to see for himself the condition of the army, and to find, if he possibly could, why a general with an army outnumbering the enemy two to one, should have permitted that enemy to be so aggressive. In short, Mr. Lincoln was determined to put an end to the Rebellion and bring the South to terms. General McClellan did not believe in punishing the South, but only in repelling an invasion of those States that still remained in the Union. He had followed Lee as far as the Potomac, and then sat quietly down and called for unlimited reinforcements. He complained that his men wanted shoes, and that his horses were fatigued. Weeks of beautiful fall weather passed without tempting him to any exploits. On the twenty-sixth of October, he began to cross the Potomac, but it was ten days before his army was all on the south side of the river, and then he renewed his delays. It was, therefore, a great relief to all the loyal people of America when McClellan was removed.

Ambrose E. Burnside was a graduate of West Point. He had commanded cavalry in the Mexican war, served faithfully, thus far, in the Rebellion, and was the inventor of a breech-loading rifle. The command of the Army of the Potomac had been offered to him twice before, but he had refused it on the ground that he was not competent

to command such a large army. When he accepted it, he did so with reluctance. At this time the right wing of Lee's army, under Longstreet, was near Culpepper, and the left, under Jackson, was in the Shenandoah valley. They were so far apart that it would take two days for one force to march to the other, and McClellan said that it had been his intention to get between them. Burnside did not continue this plan, but set out for Richmond, by way of the north branch of the Rappahannock and the city of Fredericksburg. He spent ten days in reorganizing his army into three grand divisions, under Sumner, Hooker and Franklin. On the 15th of November he began marching, and on the 20th the whole army was at Falmouth, waiting for the pontoon train, which was to meet the army at this point, to take them across the river. They did not arrive for a week, and, in the meantime, Lee, to protect Richmond, placed his army on the heights south and west of Fredericksburg, and began to fortify them. His line was about five miles and a half long; his position well selected and fortified. Burnside had taken possession of the heights on the river, that he might defend the passage of his troops, with a large number of guns. But he did not attempt to cross the stream until the 10th of December. His plan was to lay down five bridges—three opposite the city, and the others two miles below. The work was begun in a thick fog, but before the bridges had covered half the stream the fog was dispersed, and the movements of the national army revealed to the Confederates. A detachment of Mississippi riflemen had been concealed behind stone walls, in cellars, and every other protected place, and now picked off, with fatal accuracy, the men who were laying the bridges. The unfortunate soldiers fell, one after another, and were carried down the river with the current. Even the bravest finally shrank from the task of completing the bridge, and the work had to be discontinued. At the lower bridges the sharpshooters were dislodged after a time, and the bridges completed, but along the front of the town they were well sheltered, and the national guns could not be made to reach them. Burnside tried bombarding the town, throwing seventy tons of iron into it, and setting it on fire, but the sharpshooters were not dislodged. At last, three regiments, the Seventeenth Michigan, and the Nineteenth and Twentieth Massachusetts, volunteered to cross the river in pontoon boats, and drive the sharpshooters from their retreats. They did it, under a murderous fire, and captured a hundred of the sharpshooters before they could escape to the hills. The bridges were then completed, and on the 12th of September the entire army was on the Fredericksburg

side of the river. Lee had concentrated his whole army on the fortified heights; Longstreet was on his left and Jackson on his right. His army was in good spirits and determined to succeed. Burnside's orders at the beginning of the day were somewhat inconsistent, and his commanders were confused and irritated by them.

General Meade's division was the first to advance. It did so under a heavy Confederate fire, broke between two divisions of the first Confederate line, captured many prisoners and some battle-flags, and scaling the heights, came upon the second line. This drove them back, but they were protected from pursuit by Birney's division. Generals French and Hancock attacked with Sumner's division. They moved through the town and deployed in columns under the fire of the Confederate batteries. The hottest fighting took place at the foot of Mary's Hill, just below the city. This hill falls off suddenly to a sunken road, faced on the city side by a low stone wall. The hill was crowned with batteries, and this sunken road was used as a defence of the hill. French and Hancock, as they went on bravely with their divisions, were quite unconscious of the sunken road that lay by the wall. Their division had the distinction of never having turned their backs to the enemy, and they were as determined now as men could be. The front to be carried was so narrow that scarcely more than a brigade could be brought up at once, and as these rushed on, brigade after brigade was swept back till fully four thousand men were killed and wounded. Burnside was watching the fight from across the river and said to Hooker, "That crest must be crossed to-night." All who heard him protested, but Burnside insisted that it must be done, and as night was approaching Hooker made ready to attack. He began by a fierce artillery fire, but this made no more impression, so he said, "than if it had been made against a mountain of rock." The Confederate fire from the crest had ceased, for their ammunition had given out. At sunset Hooker ordered Humphreys, with four thousand men, to make an assault with empty muskets, as there was no time to load and fire. They rushed on toward the low stone wall. The sunken road could not be seen by them, but within it were troops standing four deep and perfectly protected from the fire. So numerous, indeed, were they that only a part of them fired and the rest loaded muskets. When within a few rods of this road, a solid sheet of lead and fire was poured upon the advancing column. In fifteen minutes seventeen hundred of the four thousand assailants were killed or wounded. Then the depleted columns were withdrawn and the battle was ended. The

Confederate loss had been, in all, but five thousand four hundred and nine; the Union was thirteen thousand four hundred and eighty-seven. In the night the Union troops brought in their wounded and buried some of their dead. Burnside would have liked to make a fresh attack the next day, but the other generals dissuaded him, and the army was withdrawn to the north bank of the Rappahannock. The Confederates began to regard themselves as almost invincible, but had they stopped to consider they would have seen that troops who could stand such disaster without panic or protest, were men whose staying qualities were more than a match for them, and who were bound to succeed in the end by force of their intrepidity and immovable courage. But it was the misfortune of the Union army to be poorly commanded.

The warning of President Lincoln concerning the emancipation of slaves was unheeded, and on the 1st of January, 1863, he issued a proclamation for the emancipation of about three million slaves, and announced that black men would be received into the military and naval service of the United States. Twice before emancipation of this nature had been made concerning limited territory—the first one by General Fremont, the second by General David Hunter. On both occasions Lincoln had annulled the order. It may seem strange to many at this day that Lincoln should have delayed so long before declaring emancipation. He was himself opposed to slavery, but his chief desire was to preserve the government. He wished to force the seceding States to return to their allegiance, and he meant to do this before everything else. Two years of the war had passed, therefore, before the main cause of that war was acknowledged by either side. The Confederates, with their strong confidence in their prowess, smiled at the emancipation of the slaves. They did not believe that it could ever be effected. But they were angered and annoyed beyond endurance at the announcement of the President that hereafter persons of color should be used in the army and navy. Previously, the Union forces had shown a consideration which was almost superstitious in this matter. The people of the North had so long respected all Southern claims that even in the hour of conflict they still had regard for them, and were not willing to offend popular prejudice by using the black man on the battle field. When General Hunter had organized a regiment of black troops, designated as the First South Carolina Volunteers, and the first body of negro soldiers mustered in the Union service during the war, there was the greatest alarm in Congress. A representative from Kentucky introduced a resolution asking for information concerning

regiments of fugitive slaves. The Secretary of War referred him to Hunter himself. Hunter said: "No regiment of fugitive slaves has been or is being organized in this department. There is, however, a fine regiment of persons whose late masters are fugitive rebels; men who everywhere fly before the appearance of the Union flag, leaving their servants behind them to shift as best they can for themselves. In the absence of any fugitive master law, the deserted slaves would be wholly without remedy, had not their crime of treason given the slaves right to pursue, capture and bring back these persons of whose protection they had been so suddenly bereft."

But though Lincoln was cautious and slow in stating his position, there was not a man in America who doubted that he would stand by it when once it was made public. The wisdom shown in his great caution was proved by the criticisms which he received, even at the North, for the proclamation. The Democratic ranks were immediately swelled. It was only the men of strong opinions and moral courage who stood by the much-tried President at this time. But fortunately he was not a man who needed the approval or encouragement of others. When once he was sure that he was right, nothing could affect him, and though the criticisms of his friends may have grieved him, they did not alter his course. Thus began the year 1863.

On December 31st and January 2d there was a great battle in the West. The Confederate Congress, in 1862, had passed a conscription act, forcing every man of military age into the ranks. Military age at that time was an expansive period, and boys were taken from school and sent to camps of instruction. General Beauregard had been succeeded by General Bragg, who, with forty thousand men, marched northward into Eastern Kentucky and defeated a Union force near Richmond and another at Munfordsville. He then took the liberty of appointing a Governor for Kentucky, assuming it to be a State of the Confederacy, and forced Kentuckians into his army. As he went through the country he plundered farmers and villages, but, with singular inconsistency, tried to arouse enthusiasm among the Kentuckians. It is said, however, that he did not even secure enough recruits to fill the place of his dead and wounded. He was marching back into Tennessee when General Buell, with about fifty-eight thousand men, hurried after him. At Perryville, October 8, 1862, Bragg turned and gave battle. At first the Union forces suffered severely, and their raw troops were put to a test which they could not stand, but General Philip H. Sheridan, with his experienced men, repelled the assault,

and when night came the Confederates had been driven back. In the night, Bragg moved off with his whole army, leaving one thousand of his wounded behind. General Halleck, at Washington, then planned a campaign for Buell's army in East Tennessee, to which Bragg had retreated. For certain reasons Buell refused to carry out these plans, and he was removed from command, his place being given to General William S. Rosecrans.

Farther south there had been troubles at about the same time. A Confederate army of forty thousand men, under Generals Price and Van Dorn, crossed from Arkansas into Mississippi, in September, with the intention of capturing Grant's position at Corinth, and, breaking through the Union line of defense, to co-operate with Bragg. Iuka was seized by Price, and Grant sent out a force against him under Rosecrans. On the 19th of September the battle of Iuka was fought, after which Price retreated and joined Van Dorn. These tried to capture Corinth, on October 3d, and in the first day's fighting they succeeded in forcing Rosecrans to his intrenchments. But the following morning Rosecrans received reinforcements, and the Confederates were repelled all along the line and driven into a disordered retreat. As Rosecrans neglected at Corinth, as well as at Iuka, to pursue the enemy, Grant dismissed him from service. The Confederates were also displeased with their general. They had been very anxious for the capture of Corinth, since it contained immense quantities of supplies. General Van Dorn was removed and the command of the Confederate troops given to General John C. Pemberton.

Bragg, meanwhile, had taken up an excellent position at Murfreesboro, forty miles from Nashville. Here he fortified a strong position on the shallow, fordable stream known as Stone river. Murfreesboro counted itself quite safe from attack, and indulged in the gayeties which usually follow the arrival of unemployed troops in a town. General H. Morgan, the leader of the famous guerrilla band, was married in Murfreesboro by that ministerial warrior, Leonidas Polk, who had the distinction of being bishop and general at the same time. Jefferson Davis was present at the wedding, and danced with the rest upon the United States flag, with which the floor was carpeted, to signify that the Confederacy had it literally under their feet. This gayety was broken in upon suddenly by the appearance of Rosecrans, with forty-three thousand men, within sight of Bragg's intrenchments. The following day—three days after Christmas—Bragg crossed the river before sunrise, and broke upon the right of the national column. Throughout the

morning success was with the Confederates, but in the afternoon the greater calmness and endurance of the Northern forces began to tell, and when the day closed Rosecrans had not moved from his position, though he had lost many men, twenty-eight guns, and had the uncomfortable consciousness that the enemy's cavalry was between him and his communications. The armies rested by common consent the next day, but, on the second day of the New Year, Rosecrans sent a division across the stream to strike at Bragg's communications. The command of Breckenridge was sent to attack this division and succeeded in driving it back to the river, when Breckenridge was surprised with a terrible artillery fire, and in twenty minutes lost two thousand men. A charge of the Union infantry followed up this advantage and ended the battle of Murfreesboro. Rosecrans hastened to take possession of some high ground with his batteries, with the intention of shelling the town, but the Confederate army retreated. The Union loss in killed and wounded was eight thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight and in prisoners about twenty-eight hundred. Bragg lost ten thousand men.

After Burnside's failure at Fredericksburg he was removed from the command, given a subordinate position, and General Joseph Hooker superseded him. Hooker was a graduate of West Point, had been through the Florida and Mexican Wars, and also the Peninsula campaign with McClellan. He was a man of almost reckless bravery, and had gained the nickname of "Fighting Joe" among the boys. Lincoln eloquently prayed him to "beware of rashness, but with energy and sleepless vigilance, go forward and give us victories." The discipline of the Army of the Potomac was soon restored under Hooker, and as the spring of 1863 opened, the outlook for the Union cause was good. Hooker proposed to cross the Rappahannock and strike Lee's left. He crossed quickly, and, with forty-six thousand men, reached Chancellorsville before Lee was aware of his movements. This place was not a village, but a single house, named after its owner. From it to Fredericksburg was a stretch of open country, and west of it a dense thicket, known as the "Wilderness"—a name which later grew to have a tragic signification. On May 1st Lee brought up nearly his whole army, trying to find out Hooker's exact position. His daring approach seemed to awe Hooker, and so far from acting with rashness, he used too much caution, and drew back some of his more advanced positions. He formed his army in a circle and awaited an attack. His left and centre were strongly posted, but his right was unprotected, and this Lee saw immediately when he opened battle on the morning of the 2d. He sent Jackson

on one of those sudden dashes which were so fatal to his opponents, and they rushed over the crest of a hill upon Hooker's right. Before them came a drove of wild animals scared from their thickets. The Union column broke at that point, and it looked as if the day was likely to turn against them. General Alfred Pleasanton, with two regiments of cavalry and a battery, was ordered to hasten to a high position at Hazel Grove. At the same time a strong force of Confederates made for it. To gain time, Major Peter



UNITED STATES MILITARY TELEGRAPH WAGON.

Keenan, with the Eighth Pennsylvania cavalry, about four hundred strong, was ordered to charge upon the Confederate infantry and delay them a moment till Pleasanton could gain the desired point. Keenan and his men knew that they were ordered to certain death, but they did not hesitate. The enemy stopped, astonished at the audacity of their assailants, and Pleasanton, with his twenty-two guns, gained Hazel Grove, loaded them with double charges of cannister and turned a storm of

iron upon the columns of the Confederates. As the day was near its close Stonewall Jackson was killed accidentally by some of his own men.

The next morning, May 3d, the battle was renewed under Stuart, the brilliant young cavalry leader, and Lee attacked in front with all his force. General Hooker was rendered insensible by a shot from a cannon ball that struck the pillar of the Chancellor House, against which he was leaning. After this the Union side fought in broken detachments and without order. In the midst of this Lee learned that the Union division, under Sedgwick, had defeated the opposing force, captured Fredericksburg Heights and was marching upon the Confederate rear. Lee therefore drew off a large detachment of his army and turned upon Sedgwick, who was checked with considerable loss, and crossed the river after nightfall. In the midst of a great storm which followed, the Union army crossed the Rappahannock, leaving their dead and wounded on the battle field. In the battle of Chancellorsville, the Union loss was about seventeen thousand, and the Confederates about thirteen thousand.

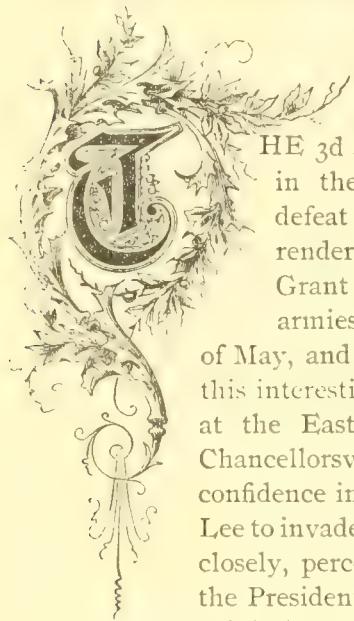
FOR FURTHER READING :

- HISTORY—Palfrey's "Antietam and Fredericksburg."
 Doubleday's "Chancellorsville and Gettysburg."
 Cook's "Life of Robert E. Lee."
 Hosmer's "The Color Guard."
 FICTION—F. A. Loring's "Two College Friends,"
 H. Morford's "The Days of Sheldy,"
 H. Morford's "Shoulder Straps,"
 H. Morford's "The Coward,"
 M. J. Magill's "Women."

CHAPTER XCII.

The Deadly Parallels.

THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG AND THE SIEGE OF VICKSBURG.



THE 3d and 4th of July, 1863, are memorable days in the War of Secession. One marked Lee's defeat at Gettysburg, the other Pemberton's surrender at Vicksburg to the invincible Grant. Grant and Sherman had planted their determined armies before the city of Vicksburg in the middle of May, and the country divided its attention between this interesting game at the West, and Lee's aggressions at the East. The triumphs at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville had given the men of the South great confidence in their powers. Public opinion was forcing Lee to invade the North, and Hooker, who watched him closely, perceived by the 28th of May—and sent word to the President to that effect—that a northern movement might be expected from the Confederates. On the 3d of June the prophecy was fulfilled.

Hooker learned that the dashing Stuart, with the entire Confederate cavalry, was at Culpepper, and the Northern general therefore hastened to send all of his cavalry, under Pleasanton, with two brigades of infantry, to attack it there. The Union troops advanced in two columns, but failed to unite, and partly through this failure were obliged to withdraw. This engagement is known as the battle of Fleetwood. It taught the Union troops the need for improving their cavalry, and this improvement became rapid and marked until in time the Northern cavalry was vastly superior to that of the South. Hooker was anxious to meet Lee's northern movement with some brilliant action, which should discourage the Confederate army, and inspire the Northern one with confidence. But General Halleck, the military advisor at Washington, was nothing if not cautious, and Hooker's suggestions





were disapproved of and criticised, till that important general threw up his command. General George Gordon Meade was appointed in his place. Meade was in his prime, was a good engineer, a determined general and a man of experience. He viewed the disposition of the Confederate force with some alarm. Longstreet was skirting the Blue Ridge. A large part of the Confederate troops were in the Shenandoah valley. The Confederate cavalry had already crossed the Potomac, and the people of that region were in terror. Harper's Ferry was threatened, and Meade feared that the eleven thousand men who defended it would be caught in the same trap that Mills' men had been ensnared in previously. The first thing which he did upon his appointment was, therefore, to order the evacuation of Harper's Ferry, and to hasten the garrison to Frederick, as a reserve. As soon as General Lee realized that Meade was inclined to act with decision, he hastened to call his forces together at Gettysburg. This town was approached by many different roads, and was, therefore, a good point for concentration. Meade followed after Lee cautiously, intending to bring on an engagement somewhere near Gettysburg. At this time—the last of June—Lee had seventy-three thousand five hundred men, and Meade about eighty-two thousand, while both generals counted eleven thousand cavalry, and were possessed of more cannon than they had any need for. The country around Gettysburg is broken into many ridges which run north and south. On one of these ridges, just west of the village, there stood a theological seminary, and between this ridge and the next is Willoughby Run, a quiet little stream. Here a detachment of the Union army, under General Reynolds, encountered the Confederates on the 29th of June. At the very opening of the engagement General Reynolds was killed by a sharpshooter, and the command fell upon Abner Doubleday. Both forces were anxious to reach a high piece of ground which was covered with woods, and commanded the field. The "Iron Brigade," a most dreaded body of Union troops, succeeded in capturing it, and the battle began in earnest. The struggle was largely for the road which led from that point to Gettysburg, and around this the fight was especially obstinate. The Union line was indiscreetly stretched out and weakened. Lee was being continually reinforced and succeeded in breaking through the centre of the line, throwing a part of the Union forces into disorder. But the retreat was made slowly, and the ambulances and artillery protected. In the midst of this confusion General Hancock came with orders from Meade to assume command. His presence restored

confidence, and he hastened to form a line along the crest of a ridge, placing all the available troops in position. This closed the first day's battle. During the night the Union troops were reinforced. Lee spent the hours of rest urging his generals to get the army together as rapidly as possible, saying that he did not wish to attack the Union troops in their strong position on the heights till all his forces were up. The second day's battle began with a mistaken arrangement of troops on the part of the Union forces. Between the two great ridges ran another ridge, which is often described as being like the diagonal portion of a capital N. General Sickles advanced his men to this diagonal ridge. The position was an unfortunate one. This was perceived immediately by the Confederates, and made the first point of attack. General Sickles lost a leg, and the situation of the Union troops was made still more difficult by this catastrophe. The Union line was driven back, but only to force it into a stronger and better position from which it could not be dislodged.

That day is full of stirring events. One of them was the fight between two brigades to reach Little Round Top, a height on the ridge which formed the Union line. General Weed's brigade, of New York, fought against Hood's Texans for the position—the men engaging in one of the most frightful hand-to-hand contests of the war. The men of both armies lay scattered dead and dying among the rocks. All attempt to fire was abandoned, and the fight was kept up with clubbed muskets, bayonets and stones. Four distinguished Union officers were killed, among them General Weed. Finally, a large part of the Texans were captured and the rest forced to retreat.

After the sun had set and the twilight was deepening, occurred the last thrilling incident of the day. It was a charge of Sumpter Hill, by two Confederate brigades, led by what was known as the Louisiana Tigers. They had never failed at a charge, and were determined not to do so now, although they were facing a perfect storm of artillery and musketry. They actually marched up in the face of that fire till they reached the guns, and made a hand-to-hand fight for them. The Union troops were reinforced at this moment, and the Confederates fled down the hill. Of the over-valorous Tigers, twelve hundred out of the seventeen hundred had fallen, and they were known no more among the organizations of the Confederacy.

On the morning of the third day Lee decided to try piercing the centre of Meade's line, since he had tried both flanks and failed. Meade anticipated him, however, and attacked early in the morning.

Once more the lines were drawn up on the two parallel ridges, and the day began with a terrible artillery duel. For hours there was nothing but a deafening roar, a blinding storm of iron under a cloud of smoke. At length Meade's chief of artillery ordered the fire to stop, that the guns might cool. Lee naturally supposed that the enemy had exhausted his artillery, and fourteen thousand of his best men moved forward steadily for a desperate charge. The Union guns reopened fire, and plowed through the Confederate columns. But these columns did not halt. They closed up and marched on over that mile of ground which lay between the ridges. All along the main line of the Union troops lay an infantry force, and as the Confederates neared, these sprang to their feet and launched a terrific volley of musketry into the right flank. The noble columns of the Confederates began to melt, but among them were those who would not yield. They came to the very breastworks and some of them leaped over them. But they saw at last that their enthusiasm had carried them too far, and some of them threw themselves upon the ground and held up their hands for quarter. The fighting stopped. The Union troops took many prisoners and battle-flags, and rested to care for their wounded and bury their dead. There had also been a movement between the cavalry, in which neither side had gained much. This closed the 3d of July. On the 4th, Lee began his retreat, in the midst of a terrible storm and over roads which were almost impassable. With them went the terrible train of wounded, suffering past all expression in the storm. To the soldierly mind it seems reprehensible that Meade did not pursue them; to the merely humane mind it seems as if it would have been little less than fiendish to have done so.

Gettysburg was the turning point of the war. It is said that the Confederates lost nearly thirty thousand. The Union loss was twenty-three thousand one hundred and ninety killed, wounded and missing. The discrepancy in numbers was not so great as to make the cause of the South seem hopeless, but there were peculiar characteristics in the struggle and the time which made the men of the South fear, and the men of the North hope, that the Rebellion would soon be the "lost cause."

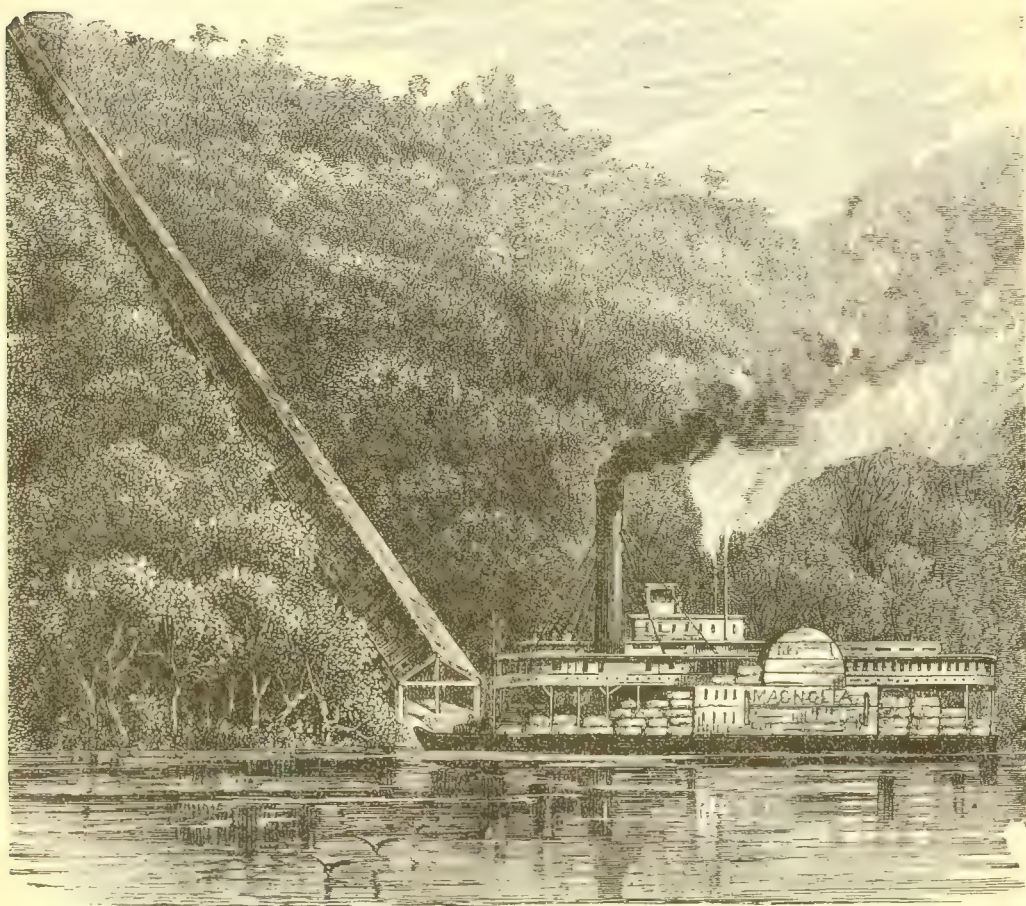
It is necessary now to look toward the West, and follow up the course of events which led to the surrender of Vicksburg. This city stands on a high bluff which overlooks the Mississippi. That mighty river makes a sharp bend at this point, and sweeps about a long, narrow peninsula. This place commanded two railroads, which were of

great importance to the Confederates, and as they had lost New Orleans, Baton Rouge and Memphis, it was of the greatest importance that they should hold Vicksburg. Farragut had gone up the river and demanded its surrender, after the taking of New Orleans. The demand was refused, and as the admiral had no land force to work with him, he could not enforce it. After this it was made strong with fortifications. Extensive batteries were planted on the bluffs, and it became almost impossible for any sort of craft to run down the river. General Grant received a dispatch from General Halleck on the 12th of November, 1862, placing him in command of all troops sent to his department, and telling him to fight the enemy wherever he pleased. After a consultation with Sherman, Grant decided to move south with his thirty thousand men and fight an equal force commanded by General Joseph C. Pemberton, on the Tallahachie. Sherman, with his thirty thousand, was to move from Memphis down the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and with the assistance of Porter and his gunboats, try to capture Vicksburg from the rear. Grant then began moving slowly, wishing to keep his enemy as far north as possible, and Sherman and Porter hastened to carry out their orders. But the plan was entirely ruined by the effective opposition of two Confederate cavalry detachments, under Generals Van Dorn and Forrest. Grant had over two million dollars' worth of supplies at Holly Springs, and on the 20th of December Van Dorn made a dash at this place, capturing it and its garrison. He also burned the stores and the railroad buildings. Forrest tore up a portion of the railroad which lay north of Grant's army, thus cutting off all communication with the North. Grant was therefore obliged to give up his part of the plan, and move back toward Memphis. Sherman and Porter did not learn of this disaster, and went on with their preparations. On Christmas day the Union troops were well placed and began preparing for attack. A large part of them were opposite the bluffs north of Vicksburg. These bluffs they crowned with artillery, and as Sherman felt sure that Grant was holding Pemberton, and that the force on Vicksburg Heights could not be large, he had no hesitation in opening attack. On the 29th of December the battle was opened, with a heavy artillery fire, followed by musketry and a rush of the men. The guns at the foot of the bluff swept them, and a cross fire from the heights poured down upon them. But quite a large detachment of Union troops succeeded in reaching the bluff. Once there they could not return, and they scooped niches in the bank with their hands and hid themselves, while the enemy came to the very edge of the hill and

fired down upon them. They were obliged to remain in this very uncertain position until nightfall. Sherman lost one thousand eight hundred and forty-two men in this assault, while the Confederates suffered but slightly. The other plans which he laid for assault were defeated by accidents of weather, and as he was in a country which was inundated with water every year to the depth of ten feet, he re-embarked his men and steamed down the river, anxious to know what had happened to Grant.

At the beginning of 1863 General McClelland was given command of the two corps commanded by Generals Sherman and Morgan. The first movement made by this united force was against Arkansas Post. This was a Confederate hold on the Arkansas, which made it dangerous for boats on the Mississippi, near the mouth of the former river. Sherman saw there could be little safety till the post was captured. He therefore persuaded McClelland to attack it with the whole army, including Porter's command. On the 10th of January they were below the fort, and had driven back the pickets. The Confederates aroused themselves for defense, and spent the night throwing up a long line of works. The next day the Union troops swept forward to the attack and were aided by the gunboats on the river. This fire continued but a few moments, when white flags and rags fluttered all along the Confederate lines. Immediately the firing ceased, and the garrison, numbering about forty-eight hundred, were taken prisoners. The fort was destroyed. McClelland was not able to pursue his plans further, for Grant commanded him to hasten back to the Mississippi. Grant had now been given personal command over the operations on the Mississippi. His first act was to divide his force into four corps, commanded by Generals McPherson, Hurlburt, Sherman and McClelland. Hurlburt's force was left to hold the lines east of Memphis, and all the other troops were joined in the river expedition. The plan was now to besiege Vicksburg. To follow up the forty-seven days of siege would be tedious and painful. Now the men dug canals, now they mined. At times an expedition picked its way through the deadly swamps by the light of tallow candles. Again they were hemmed in the barricaded rivers, with the enemy in front and behind them. Grant tried half a dozen plans, and failed in all. The Confederates showed not only courage, but the greatest ingenuity, and they kept themselves apprised of Grant's every movement. On the night of April 16th, the Union fleet ran by the batteries of Vicksburg, and returned the heavy fire directed against them. Grant searched for some time before he found a suitable place to

cross the Mississippi, and finally decided upon Bruinsburg. McClelland's corps went first, and marched on Fort Gibson on the 30th of April. The enemy was found in a strong position three miles west of that fort, and after a hard day's fight, the Confederates retreated, burning their bridges behind them. Grant established his base at Grand Gulf,



VIEW OF A COTTON CHUTE

where there were fortifications which the Confederates had deserted. He sent a division after the retreating Confederates, and pressed on with all the rest of his army. These numbered about forty-one thousand men, and were increased a few days later to forty-five thousand. Pemberton had about fifty-one thousand.

Simultaneous with these preparations was Grierson's brilliant raid

through the Southwestern States. Colonel Benjamin H. Grierson commanded a cavalry of seventeen hundred men. These rode through the State of Mississippi doing what damage they could to bridges, railroads and supplies, and dismaying the people by their rapid and unexpected movements. For sixteen days they plunged through rivers, swamps, forests and fields, and at the end of that time rode into Baton Rouge, with the men half dead from fatigue and lack of sleep.

Grant engaged in a number of heavy skirmishes as he moved toward Vicksburg, and took possession of two towns, in one of which were the factories which turned out goods for the Confederacy. These Sherman absolutely destroyed. On the 15th of May occurred the battle of Champion's Hill, which was the bloodiest of the campaign. At the end of the battle Pemberton retreated across the Big Black river, leaving his dead and wounded behind him—over three thousand. Another heavy skirmish occurred on the bank of the Big Black river, and the Union troops added eighteen guns to the thirty which they had captured at Champion's Hill. Bridges were now constructed that the men might cross the stream. These were made of rafts, of trees and cotton bales, and Sherman and Grant sat side by side on a log, watching their men as they passed by night over the swaying structures. Vicksburg was well protected on the land, as well as on the water side, and Pemberton hastened to strengthen himself in the village, while Grant followed close behind. Sherman went to Haine's Bluff, where he had been defeated before. The other commands stretched out from Sherman's left. Grant feared an attack from the rear, for General Johnston's force was behind him, and he therefore hastened to make an assault, with the intention of carrying the works by storm. This was on the 22d of May. His men rushed up the breastworks and succeeded in planting some flags, but not in holding them, and Grant was finally forced to admit the assault a failure, and withdraw his men. Then he began the siege by regular approaches. Day and night the guns poured shells into the city, till the citizens dug caves in the soft clay banks and took refuge in them. Very hungry were the people of Vicksburg, and still hungrier the exhausted soldiers, but it was not till the 4th of July, 1863, that Pemberton yielded to the demand for unconditional surrender. The Confederate army was fed from the knapsacks of the Union troops, and immediately paroled and furnished with means for reaching their homes.

The news of this important victory was received everywhere in the North with the greatest satisfaction and demonstrations of rejoicing

by the supporters of the Union cause. It was, indeed, an important event in the history of the war, as it gave the Union army undisputed possession of the Mississippi river to the Gulf.

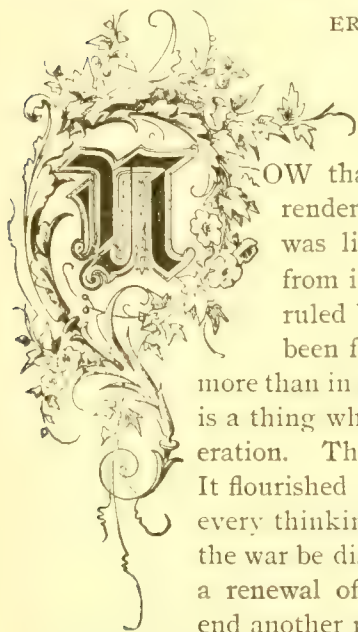
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Bates' "Battle of Gettysburg."
Coppee's "Grant and His Campaigns."
Glazier's "Three Years in the Federal Cavalry."
Headley's "Grant's Sherman."
Longborough's "Cave Life in Vicksburg."
Bullock's "Secret Service of the Confederacy."
Burnham's "United States Secret Service."
FICTION—W. H. Peck's "Confederate Flag on the Ocean."
M. Remick's "Great Battle Year."
M. Remick's "Forward with the Flag."
POETRY—Bret Harte's "John Burns of Gettysburg."

CHAPTER XCIII.

The Martyrs.

WHY THE WAR DID NOT END AFTER GETTYSBURG—THE NEW YORK
RIOTS—ATROCITIES IN THE SOUTH—SOUTH-
ERN PRISON PENS.



NOW that two great Confederate armies had surrendered it would seem to the observer as if there was little excuse for continuing the war. But from its beginning the American nation has been ruled by popular opinion. Most of its wars have been for principle, and it has delighted in nothing more than in great controversies. The popular conscience is a thing which has constantly to be taken into consideration. The "Southern idea" was not yet conquered. It flourished in the North as well as in the South, and every thinking soldier and politician knew that, should the war be discontinued at this point, it would only mean a renewal of the old troublous legislation, and in the end another resort to arms. Practically, the Confederacy was becoming weak. Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and West Virginia, all slaves States, sympathized with the Government. The largest city of the Confederacy had long been held by Union troops. But it was not territory and men alone which were to be conquered, but ideas as well. In the North, a large number of men made themselves conspicuous by leading a party opposed to the Government, and by delivering speeches which were as treasonable as they were heartless. Among these was ex-President Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire. These men misrepresented the Union cause, the patient, and much-tried President, and the spirit which prompted a continuation of the war. These speeches inflamed the common people, and brought about, among other catastrophes, the New York riots.

Drafts had been ordered in several of the States, for the volunteer

system had not latterly furnished enough men. A law provided that any man whose name was drawn, and who did not wish to go into the service, could get a substitute, or pay three hundred dollars to the Government and be released. In the South, every man could easily



HORACE GREELEY

go into the service, for there were slaves at home to keep the farms tilled and the stores open, but in the North it was necessary that a large portion of the men should always remain at home, and the substitute system was arranged to accommodate this need. The opposition party

misinterpreted this arrangement and said that the Government demanded three hundred dollars, or the life of the man whom it drafted. On the other hand, the arrangement had been made simply as a protection for these men, and when the clause was repealed to satisfy the opposition party, the price of substitutes went from three hundred to a thousand dollars—a sum which few workingmen were able to pay. In April, 1863, a levy of three hundred thousand men was called for, with the alternative of a draft, in case the quotas were not filled by volunteers. That of New York fell short, and a draft was begun. New York was largely Democratic, and several of the most influential papers were in favor of the opposition. From the very beginning of the draft, excitement was noticeable in the city, and the marshals who tried to take the names and addresses of those subject to call were threatened with violence. On the 13th of July the draft-wheel was set in motion, at the corner of Third avenue and Forty-sixth street, and in a short time the building was surrounded by a surging, loud-voiced crowd. In a short time they had stopped the street cars and made a blockade in the streets. They finally entered the marshal's office, driving the policemen and officers out at the back windows. They then burned the building and prevented the firemen from throwing any water upon it. The superintendent of police was stoned and clubbed till he was a shapeless mass of bruises, and the defence of the city for the remainder of the riot was conducted by Commissioner Thomas C. Acton and Inspector Daniel Carpenter. Another marshal's office was entered in the same way, and the whole block of stores about it was burned. The police and the mob encountered each other through the day in a street fight, and the police were defeated. Some of them were stabbed by people in the crowd, others stoned, and many shot. The mob succeeded, before the close of the afternoon, in getting possession of the gun factory. As evening approached a great procession marched down Broadway, with "no draft" inscribed upon its banners, and armed in a most motley manner. Inspector Carpenter, with two hundred policemen, who had orders to take no prisoners, but to strike quick and hard, met them on Broadway. A few minutes of fierce fighting followed, and the mob fled. For two days longer the riot continued. The mob murdered eleven negroes, who had committed no offence except that of being black. They sacked and burned the Colored Orphan Asylum, and the two hundred little children barely escaped by the rear doors, as the mob broke in at the front. They surged around the office of the *Tribune*, which was edited by Horace Greeley, and tried to set fire to it, but the printers ran board

troughs out of the windows with the intention of dropping bombs from them upon the crowd below. The mob guessed at their ominous significance and hastened away. On the second day a small military force assisted the police. When it was seen that no quarter could be expected from the mob, the police and military fought without compunction, and killed wherever they could. In one disreputable neighborhood, the police were fired upon from the windows and roofs,



THE TOMBS PRISON, NEW YORK CITY.

and they entered the tenement houses in squads, searched them from top to bottom, killed the people with the bayonet or club, and flung them out of the windows or over the bannisters. Those three days were indescribably horrible. Many of the incidents will not bear relating. Colonel Henry J. O'Brien, of the Eleventh New York Volunteers, was captured by the mob, and tortured in the most terrible way for hours, and finally killed by some maddened women. It was thought

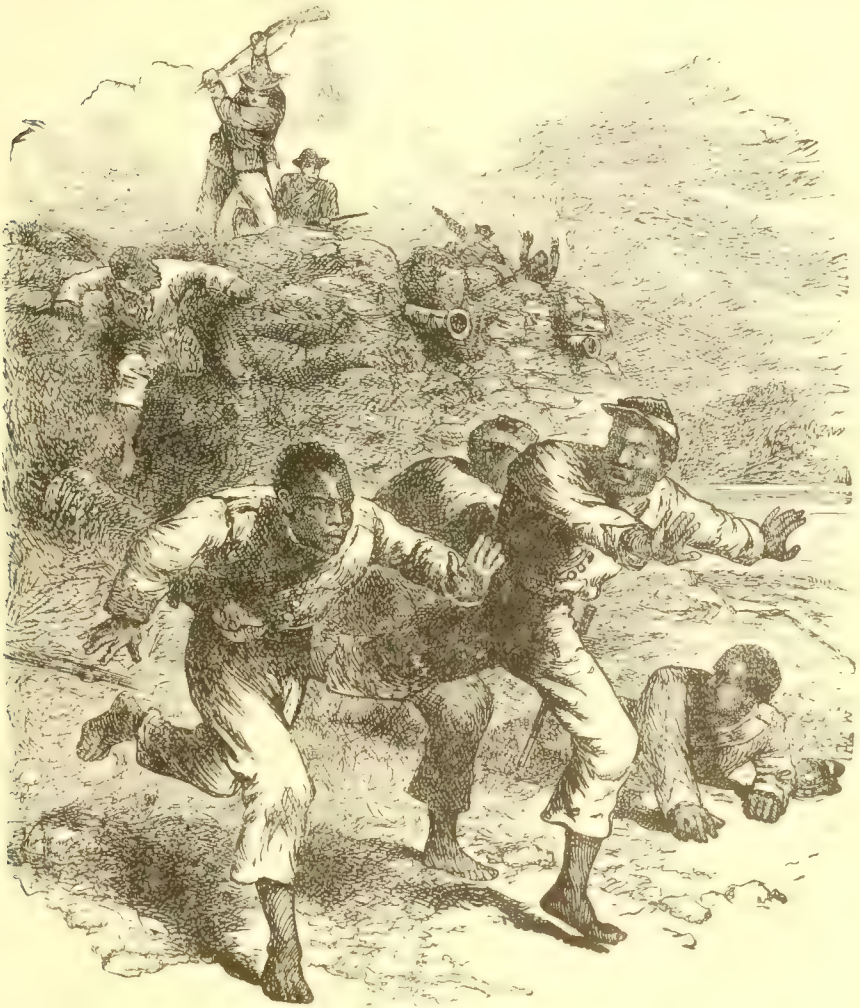
that men of wealth and standing were disguised among those who led the mob. By the end of the three days, between two and three million dollars' worth of property had been destroyed, fifty policemen had been injured, and eighteen people killed by the rioters. On the other hand more than twelve hundred of the mob had been slain.

Throughout the South the cruellest outrages were perpetrated upon Union men who chanced to live in a Southern district. It is said that in Texas alone, between two and three thousand citizens were hanged, who were known to sympathize with the Union cause, and to refuse to uphold secession. The Governor of Texas permitted these barbarities, and encouraged the people of the State to commit them. One woman was hanged to a tree in sight of her little children for wishing that the Union army would hurry to Texas and end the war, that her husband might come home. In the border States, these cruelties were very frequent, especially in East Tennessee. Not only were the lives of quiet citizens taken by men in the Confederate uniform, but houses were burned, children tortured, and women subjected to every sort of suffering. The papers of the South advised "bushwhacking," and every sort of partisan fight. The black flag was not unfrequently raised, and the people who fought under it gave no quarter to any one, regardless of sex, age or condition. The Confederate Congress went so far as to organize bands of partisan rangers, who were entitled to the same pay, rations and quarters as other soldiers. These were known as Guerrillas, and their purpose was to terrorize the country and murder and steal, but to claim the protection of the Confederate government, as honorable prisoners of war, whenever they were captured. The very least of the crimes committed by these bands was to destroy everything in and about the houses by which they passed, and to steal the horses and cattle. That there were instances of intolerance at the North, no one pretends to deny, but it principally took the form of social ostracism.

It seems hardly necessary to go over the dark chapter which records the doings in Southern prisons. The sufferings of the men there were notorious. The civilized world has never seen such premeditated and deliberate cruelty. Most of the commissioned officers captured by the Confederate army were placed in Libby warehouse, at Richmond, and at Columbia, South Carolina. The non-commissioned officers and privates were kept in camps, at Andersonville and Milan, Georgia; at Tyler, Texas, at Salisbury, North Carolina, at Florence, South Carolina, and at Belle Isle, in the James River, at Richmond. With the exception of Libby, these were open stockades, with but little shelter.

That at Andersonville, which is particularly famous for its horrors, consisted of twenty acres of ground, afterwards enlarged to thirty, enclosed in a palisade of pine logs fifteen feet high. One hundred and twenty feet outside was another palisade, and between the two walked the guards. A slight railing, known as the "dead line," ran inside of the inner stockade, about twenty feet from it. Any prisoner who came too near this line was immediately shot. A tiny stream of slow-running water was the only supply the men had for drinking, cooking or washing. There was no need for selecting the stockades in a place without trees, as there were plenty of trees within sight. The whole was built under the direction of General William S. Winder, who had stated it as his intention to build the pen so as to destroy more Yankees than could be destroyed at the front. Mr. Davis and the Confederate Congress knew of the sufferings of the prisoners at Andersonville, and resisted the appeals of more humane men among the Confederates to have them lessened. At one time there were thirty-three thousand prisoners in the stockade, which gave a space of about four feet square to each man. Here the men wasted to skeletons, and died of the most terrible diseases. Many of them went mad, others became imbecile; many were shot wantonly; not unfrequently they walked to the dead line for the express purpose of inviting death. They called it "being exchanged." Many escaped from the various prisons, but though they were aided by the negroes, they were usually tracked and brought back. Bloodhounds were kept for this especial purpose. By 1864, the prisons were crowded to overflowing, owing to the fact that exchanges of prisoners had been stopped. This was because the Confederate authorities would not exchange any black soldiers or their white officers captured in battle, and the United States Government, being bound to protect equally all who entered its service, refused to exchange at all. The people of the South never felt it necessary to show any honor in fighting the blacks. This was shown in a most cowardly and inhuman way, at Fort Pillow, April 12, 1864. This fort was forty miles above Memphis, on the Mississippi. It stood upon a high bluff with a ravine on each side. A little village and some Government buildings nestled in the lower ravine. The place had a garrison of five hundred and fifty men, nearly half of whom were colored, commanded by Major L. F. Booth. At sunrise the fort was attacked by the Confederate General Forrest, with five thousand men. A brave advance was made, which was assisted by the gunboat *New Era*, which swept the ravine. Major Booth was killed, but the fort stood firm, and the besiegers finally sent in a flag of

truce demanding a surrender. Under cover of this flag they moved up into positions nearer the fort, and then sent in a second flag. Surrender was refused, and they took advantage of their close position to the fort to rush over the works with a cry of "no quarter." The garrison threw



FIGHT OF SLAVES FROM FORT PILLOW

down their arms and surrendered, but no mercy was shown them. The sick and wounded were murdered in their tents; the women and children were shot or put to the sword. At least three hundred persons were butchered after the surrender. It goes without saying that the

more honorable officers of the Confederate army were as shocked as the rest of the civilized world at Forrest's treacherous action.

Another reason that the exchange of prisoners had been discontinued was that the Confederates did not observe their paroles. The thirty thousand men taken by Grant at Vicksburg, and the six thousand taken by Banks at Port Hudson, in July, 1863, were released on parole, with the understanding that they were not to fight again during the war unless properly exchanged. Three months later the Confederate commissioner of exchange declared them all released from their parole, and they were restored to the ranks.

President Lincoln's kind heart was greatly distressed over the complications of this prison question. On one hand he grieved to think of the thousands of men actually rotting in the pestiferous Southern prisons, and on the other hand, he objected to exchanging the well-fed Confederate prisoners for the skeletons sent up from the Southern stockades. In vain did the people of the North try to send supplies to their suffering friends in Libby and Andersonville, and the rest of the prisons. The supplies seldom or never reached the men, and at Libby, where the boxes for the prisoners arrived at the rate of three hundred a week, they were packed up in warehouses within sight of the famished and shivering wretches who could not reach the things prepared for them. The total number of soldiers and citizens captured by the Confederate armies during the war was 188,145. About half of these were actually confined in prisons, where the number of death was 36,401. The number of Confederates captured by the Northern forces was 476,169, of whom 227,570 were actually confined. The percentage of death in the Confederate prisons was over thirty-eight; in the Northern prisons it was thirteen and five one-hundredths. That the Confederate soldier was often without necessary provisions is sometimes urged as an excuse for the treatment of the prisoners in his hands. But if prisoners could not be provided for, then they should not have been taken, and it should be remembered, too, that the prisoners would not have suffered nearly so much as they did, had the supplies sent them from the North been delivered.

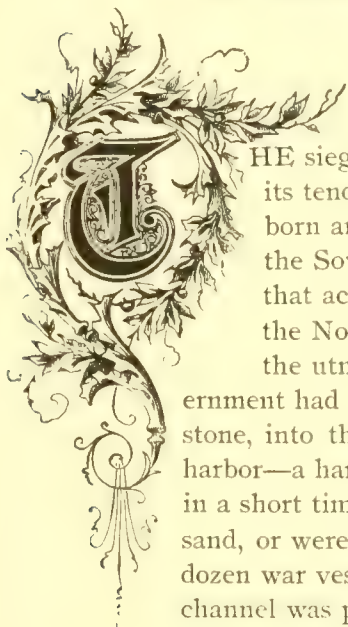
FOR FURTHER READING

- HISTORY—Foot's "Fort Pillow Massacre."
 Burbiere's "Scraps from the Prison Table."
 Harding's "Belle Boyd in Camp and Prison."
 Glazier's "Capture, Prison-Pen and Escape."
 Stuart's "Sufferings of Prisoners of War."
 Cavada's "Libby Life."
 Harris' "Prison Life in Richmond."
 FICTION—Anna Dickinson's "What Answer."
 Mrs. Terhune's "Sunny Bank."
 J. T. Trowbridge's "Cudjo's Cave."

CHAPTER XCIV.

The Swamp Angel.

THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON—DUPONT'S DEFEAT—GILMORE'S SIEGE—
THE "SWAMP ANGEL"—MORGAN'S RAIDS.



THE siege of Charleston touched the Confederacy at its tenderest point. The idea of secession had been born and nursed in Charleston, and the people of the South felt an exceeding tenderness for it on that account. For the same reasons the people of the North were especially desirous to have it suffer the utmost penalty of war. At one time the Government had sunk several old whale ships, loaded with stone, into the channel, for the purpose of closing the harbor—a harbor most useful to the Confederacy. But in a short time these old hulks sank harmlessly into the sand, or were swept away, and it was necessary to keep a dozen war vessels to sustain the blockade. As the main channel was protected by Confederate batteries, this was no easy matter. After a time this channel was closed by the occupation by Union troops of Morris' Island, but even this did not keep the blockade runners from slipping in by the other passes. The blockading vessels were openly attacked in January, 1863.

The attack was made by two Confederate iron-clads, which soon disabled two Union vessels and were only driven away when the rest of the fleet came to their aid. The Government was now more determined than ever to capture the port, and use the harbor as a refuge for Union vessels. A strong fleet was fitted out for this purpose, and placed under command of Rear-Admiral S. F. DuPont. This fleet consisted of seven monitors, an iron-clad frigate, an iron-clad ram, and several wooden gunboats. Choosing a fortunate day, DuPont steamed in to attack the forts on April 7, 1863.

Nothing had been left undone for the defense of the city. Numerous batteries had been erected. Fort Sumpter was occupied, and many powerful guns of English manufacture placed where they would be of the most use. Piles and chains obstructed the channels, which were otherwise endangered to the Union troops by innumerable torpedoes, some of which were arranged to explode whenever a vessel should run against them, while others were to be fired by electric wires from the forts. The main channel between Fort Moultrie and Fort Sumpter was crossed by a heavy cable supported by empty barrels. In the south channel a wide opening had been left in the row of piles, and offered a temptation to the Union vessels, which it was hoped they could not resist, for beneath the water were several tons of powder connected with an electric wire. These dangers were not unsuspected by DuPont, but he had no hesitation in sending his monitor *Weehawken* out on the morning of April 17th, to prove what the situation might be. As soon as the *Weehawken* had become slightly entangled among the network of chains—she was incumbered with a great raft pushed before her to explode the torpedoes—the batteries opened all around her, and she and the other monitors which hurried to her aid were the center of a terrific shower of iron and bursting shells. One monitor, the *Kocukuk*, which had approached quite near to the enemy, was struck nearly one hundred times. That evening she sank in an inlet. Most of the other vessels were badly injured, and the fleet had to confess itself defeated.

Two months later the Union forces had a victory on the sea which somewhat counterbalanced this defeat. The *Atlanta*, a Confederate ironclad, was sent out to sink the monitors and raise the blockade of Charleston. She dropped down the channel on June 17th, and following her came two steamers loaded with citizens, among whom were many ladies. These felt a very natural interest in her, as the ladies of Charleston had contributed their jewels to pay for her completion. The *Weehawken* was the first monitor to approach her. Five shots were fired from her enormous eleven-inch and fifteen-inch guns. Those five shots, each directed at a vital point of the *Atlanta*, disabled her, and she hung out a white flag and surrendered. DuPont's fleet took her to Philadelphia, where she was exhibited as a curiosity. She was provisioned for a long cruise, and carried a huge torpedo from the end of a beam thirty feet long, projecting from her bow under water.

Shortly after this, General Quincy A. Gilmore was sent from the North, with a large force, to take the city of Charleston. This city, bordered by miles of swampy ground, had many natural protections

against an assaulting enemy. Gilmore decided to approach the city by way of Folly and Morris Islands, where he could be protected by the monitors. His first work was to erect powerful batteries on Folly Island. On the most northern point of Folly Island was the Confederate battery Gregg. South of this was Fort Wagner, and still farther south were other works. Gilmore's battery on Folly Island had been erected behind a grove of trees, and on the morning of July 10th, these were suddenly cut down, and Gilmore opened fire upon the most southernly work on Morris Island, while the fleet—now commanded by Admiral Dahlgren—bombarded Fort Wagner. Troops were landed under protection of this fire, but as the day was unbearably hot, no advance was made on Fort Wagner until the following morning. The assault was repulsed and the Union troops retired to their earthworks.

A week later another assault was made, being led by the first regiment of colored troops (the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts) that had ever been raised on the authorization that accompanied the proclamation of emancipation. They led the advance by their own request, with an evident desire to settle, once for all, the question of negro bravery. Though fire from all the Confederate batteries was opened upon them and their ranks thinned every second, they marched steadily on, crossed the ditch before Fort Wagner waist-deep in water, while musketry poured down upon them and hand-grenades were exploded in their midst, and even climbed up to the rampart. Here they were hurled back. Their young commander, Colonel Robert G. Shaw, and fifteen hundred of their men were killed. The experiment was too costly to repeat. General Gilmore now approached Fort Wagner by regular parallels. By August 17th, a dozen breaching batteries of enormous rifle guns were established and directed against Fort Sumpter, which at the end of a week was a shapeless mass of ruins. The parallels were pushed forward still further toward Fort Wagner, partly through ground so low that the higher tides washed over it. The ironclad frigate *New Ironsides* assisted in the bombardment, and strong calcium lights were thrown upon the fort, and kept an eternal day there. The Confederates suddenly abandoned Fort Wagner, and Battery Gregg, at the north of Morris Island, was also deserted. Fort Sumpter still furnished a desolate shelter for some of the Confederate infantry, and these defended it against a few hundred sailors from the Union fleet, who tried to capture it. To bombard the city itself was the next move. General Gilmore selected a site on the western side of Morris Island, and placed the work in the hands of a captain who was told that he must not fail. The

ground was soft mud sixteen feet deep, and the task of establishing a battery there seemed impossible. But piles were driven and a platform laid upon them, a parapet built of sixteen thousand bags of sand, and an eight-inch rifle gun was dragged across the swamp and placed upon the platform. All of this work was done in the night, and when accomplished was still at the disadvantage of being five miles from Charleston. But the "swamp angel," as the soldiers called the gun, would be able to reach the lower part of the city. Late in August it opened fire. As a protection to the city, the Confederate authorities selected from their prisoners fifty officers, and placed them in a district reached by the shells. With what mingled feelings these imprisoned Union officers awaited the first rumble of the "swamp angel" can be imagined. By placing an equal number of Confederate officers under fire, the Government forced the removal of its own. At the thirty-sixth discharge the "swamp angel" burst, and was never replaced.

So wide was the theatre of action in the Rebellion that it is impossible to make a consecutive story of it, since it is constantly necessary to return and take up the broken threads of the narrative at neglected points.

In the West, during the spring and summer of 1863, there were other events of interest besides Grant's siege of Vicksburg. In a war of less magnitude they would have been of great interest. As it was, they were thought little of, and soon forgotten. For weeks Generals Rosecrans and Bragg sat warily watching each other. Detachments from both armies made destructive raids and opposed each other in numerous minor engagements. Morgan, the Confederate guerrilla, won a reputation for his raid across Ohio, with a force of three thousand cavalry. After committing many atrocities, he was at last met and defeated by the home guards of Ohio. The incidents of his raids are romantic, and have been the subjects of many poems and tales.

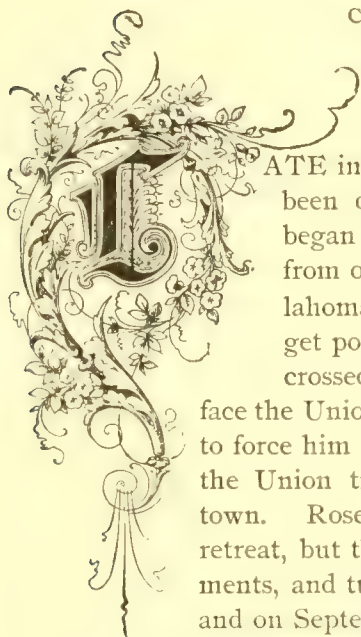
FOR FURTHER READING :

- HISTORY**—Batten's "Two Years in the United States Army."
 Early's "Last Year of the War"
 Pollard's "Last Year of the War"
FICTION—J. T. Trowbridge's "The Three Scouts."
 J. T. Trowbridge's "The Drummer Boy."
 W. H. Thomas' "Running the Blockade."
POETRY—George H. Boker's "Black Regiment."
 Phoebe Cary's "Hero of Fort Wagner."

CHAPTER XCV.

“The River of the Dead.”

CAMPAIGN AT THE WEST BETWEEN GENERALS ROSECRANS AND
BRAGG—BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA—BATTLE OF CHAT-
TANOOGA—THE SANITARY AND CHRISTIAN
COMMISSIONERS.



WATE in the summer of 1863, Rosecrans, who had been quietly keeping Bragg on the defensive, began to move. He forced Bragg to fall back from one point to another, all the way from Tullahoma to Chattanooga. Rosecrans wished to get possession of Chattanooga, and when Bragg crossed the Tennessee, and once more turned to face the Union army at that point, Rosecrans set down to force him out of it. This he did by a strategy, and the Union troops hastened to take possession of the town. Rosecrans supposed that Bragg was in full retreat, but the Confederate general received reinforcements, and turning at Lafayette, waited for Rosecrans, and on September 19th and 20th was fought the battle of Chickamauga, on the river of that name. Longstreet had joined Bragg on the 18th, and the latter general now had about seventy thousand men under his command. Rosecrans had about fifty-five thousand. Bragg was the attacking party. His plan was to make a feint on the Union right, and at the same time to fall heavily upon the left, crush it, seize the roads that led to Chattanooga, and thus shut off Rosecrans' supplies. But the Union left was commanded by General George H. Thomas, who is said to have been one of the best corps commanders produced by either side in the whole war, and especially formidable in a fight where stubbornness and endurance were the qualities most needed. Throughout the day there was a series of bloody charges. General Leonidas Polk was directly opposed to Thomas, and

he led on his men fiercely hour after hour. Upon both sides there was terrible mortality, and large numbers of prisoners were taken. When night closed the situation was altered but little. The next day the battle continued to sway back and forth between Polk and Thomas. In the afternoon, however, the tide of battle took another direction. A fatal gap was made in the right wing of the Union lines, brought about by a carelessly written and misinterpreted order. Longstreet hastened to pour six divisions of his men through this gap. Rosecrans became bewildered, and drove fiercely to Chattanooga to make arrangements for getting his broken forces there. Thomas still stood firm, although the rest of the army was in disorder, and the Confederates, now sure of victory, poured up with a reckless disregard of life. As dusk fell, the ammunition was exhausted, and the last furious charge of the Confederates was repelled with the bayonet. From this time on Thomas was called the "Rock of Chickamauga." In the night he fell back to Rossville, where Sheridan joined him in the morning, and together they marched to Chattanooga to strengthen the defenses of that city. Here they found the rest of the army under Rosecrans. The Union loss in the two days' battle of Chickamauga was sixteen thousand two hundred and thirty-six. The Confederate loss was between nineteen and twenty thousand. With the exception of Gettysburg, it was the most destructive battle of the war. Bragg advanced to positions on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, putting the town in a state of siege. He stopped the navigation of the river below, and cut off all of Rosecrans' routes of supply, except one long and rude wagon road. For over a month these opposing armies rested and reorganized. The departments of the Ohio, the Cumberland and Tennessee were united under the title of the Military Division of the Mississippi, of which General Grant was made commander, and Thomas was put in the place of Rosecrans in command of the Army of the Cumberland. On the 23d of October Grant arrived at Chattanooga. He found the men on short rations, discouraged and restless. Great numbers of horses and mules were dead, and Chattanooga was seriously threatened by Bragg's army. The first thing which Grant did was to open a better line of supply. He had a road built to Bridgeport, where steamers could reach it. In five days this line was completed, and the "Cracker Line" as the soldiers called it, was opened, and supplies of all sorts were abundant.

The Confederate line was stretched out twelve miles long. It ran across Chattanooga valley, and rested its flank on the northern end of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. The Confederates were also

intrenched upon the crests of these mountains. Longstreet, with twenty thousand men, had been detached from Bragg's army and sent against Burnside, at Knoxville. Sherman had joined Grant and swelled the force to about eighty thousand men. Sherman was placed on the left wing on the north side of the Tennessee, opposite the head of Missionary Ridge; Thomas in the centre across the Chattanooga valley, and Hooker's men swept around the right at the base of Lookout Mountain. It was one of the most beautiful spots which the war desecrated. Sherman, who was famous for laying bridges, constructed two across the Tennessee on the night of November 20th, and the next day he crossed the river and advanced rapidly upon the enemy's works at Missionary Ridge. The ground made fighting very difficult, and Sherman only succeeded partly in his undertaking. Hooker swept around the base of Lookout Mountain, and ordered his men up the steep. They pushed on toward the heights in the face of the Confederate troops, made their way through the clouds that hung below the crest of the mountain, and disappeared above them to the very summit. Such of the enemy at that point as were not taken prisoners escaped down the mountains. This is known as Hooker's battle above the clouds. On the following day (the 25th), Grant ordered Thomas to press forward. He did so, walking right into the line of the Confederate works at the base of Missionary Ridge, and following the retreating Confederates closely up the slope. He swept on till he reached the summit and turned Bragg's own guns upon his defeated men. The Union lost about six thousand men, and the Confederates about ten thousand men in this battle. Bragg took the remainder of his army to Dalton, Georgia, where the command was assumed by General Joseph E. Johnston. After the close of this romantic campaign, a large detachment of men was sent to the relief of Burnside, at Knoxville, and Longstreet, who was opposed to this force, then withdrew to Virginia.

Long before this time the war had been robbed of some of its horrors by the efforts of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions. It was here that the women played their not unimportant part in the war. From the very first they had been anxious to assist the cause. Their personal sacrifices were great. Not only did they cheerfully give up the men dear to them, but thousands of them supported themselves in order that their husbands might leave them. They sacrificed many comforts, and organized many money-making schemes to swell the army fund. With the first call for troops in April, 1861, the women held meetings in many places for the purpose of organizing their efforts and resources.

Out of such meetings finally grew the Women's Central Association of Relief, which had its birth in New York, under a constitution written by Dr. Bellows, who was chosen its president. A committee was sent to Washington to offer the services of the organization to the Government, and to learn in what way it could be most useful. The Government did not receive the offer kindly. Even Mr. Lincoln thought that such an organization might embarrass, rather than aid the cause. But permission was at length obtained for the formation of a commission of inquiry and advice in respect to the sanitary interests of the United States forces. This commission met with every sort of discouragement. The officers united in looking upon the matter with distrust. The first work of this organization was to have the volunteer forces reinspected, and many of the men, physically unfit for service, discharged. Its chief purpose was to form depots for receiving supplies of clothing, medicines and delicacies for the camps and hospitals, and forwarding them hastily. Local societies were formed by women all through the North, and managed entirely by them. Of the fifteen million dollars' worth of articles received and distributed, more than four-fifths came from these seven thousand local societies. The commission soon won the admiration of everyone in the military service. It helped select sites for camps, regulated drainage, inspected cooking, constructed model pavilion hospitals to prevent the spread of contagion, and established a system of soldiers' homes, where the sick and convalescent could be cared for on their way to and from their homes. The hospitals, from being dirty and ill-cared for, became models of order and cleanliness. Hospital steamers were fitted up and put on the Mississippi and its tributaries, to ply between the seat of war and the points from which northern hospitals could be reached. A hospital car was invented in which the stretchers that the wounded were brought upon from the field could be hung, and thus become a sort of hammock. The car was built with extra springs, that the jolting might be reduced, and trains of them were run regularly with physicians and stores on board. The commission had several large depots at convenient points, where articles were assorted and labeled, and the army officers were kept informed of the articles which could be supplied. Gardens were planted by the commission and vegetables raised for the use of the soldiers in the field. Supplies of all sorts were kept in constant readiness, in case the Government supplies should be delayed. Sometimes the agents of the commission were actually on the battle field with their supplies, and at the front rescuing the wounded. From

almost every home in the North came something to aid the commission; if not money, then food, clothing, lint, and all sorts of valuables which could be sold, such as diamonds, watches, live stock, carriages, etc. Fairs were held, at which large amounts of money were raised. From the State of California alone came one million three hundred thousand dollars. This was sent largely by men who, being too far from the seat of the war to engage in the conflict, wished to aid the Government so far as lay in their power. This generous contribution from the loyal people of California proved of timely need to the commission in their work of ameliorating the condition of the soldiers in the field.

In course of time the Christian Commission was organized. This met with the approval of the military officers, but did not awaken much enthusiasm among the people at first. In May, 1862, it was able to send out but fourteen delegates, ten of whom were clergymen, but these were received with such favor by the men, that four hundred delegates were sent to the army before the end of the year, and more than a thousand were engaged in the home work. Bibles and hymn books were distributed by the tens of thousands, and newspapers and magazines placed in every camp. Twenty-three libraries were formed, over one hundred and forty thousand dollars expended in money, and an equal value of stores distributed. Chapel tents and chapel roofs were soon furnished to the armies, diet kitchens established in the hospitals, and schools opened for the children of colored soldiers. The writing of letters for the wounded men in the hospitals was not the least of the work. A coffee wagon was invented and given to the commission. Coffee could be made in large quantities in this as it was driven along. The commission supported its own delegates absolutely, and in the course of its existence sent out six thousand delegates. One hundred and twenty of these were women employed mainly in the diet kitchens. Dr. Bellows was president of the Sanitary Commission, Frederick Olmsted secretary, and George T. Strong treasurer. The executive committee of the Christian Commission had George H. Stuart as its chairman, Joseph Patterson as treasurer, and Samuel Moss for secretary. Numerous books have been written on the women who volunteered as nurses in the service of the Government. Miss Clara Barton, now at the head of the Red Cross organization, entered upon hospital work at the very beginning of the war, and at the close of the conflict spent several years searching for the missing men of the Union armies. The first woman who volunteered her services was Miss

Dorothy L. Dicks, to whom all women wishing to act as nurses reported from the beginning of the war. Miss Amy Bradley had charge of a large camp for convalescents near Alexandria, and helped twenty-two hundred men collect back-pay due them, amounting to over two hundred thousand dollars. The wife of General Francis Barlow spent three years in hospitals and died in the service.

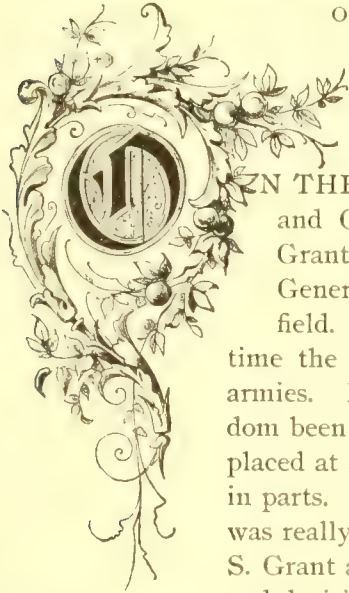
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—McKay's "Stories of Hospital and Camp."
Worthington's "Women in Battle."
Brockett's "Woman's Work in Camp, Field and Hospital."
Harding's "Belle Boyd in Camp and Prison."
Champlin's "Christian Work on the Battle Field."
POETRY—F. Moore's "Lyrics of Loyalty."

CHAPTER XCVI.

“Forward by the Left Flank.”

GRANT GIVEN ABSOLUTE COMMAND—THE BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS—“FORWARD BY THE LEFT FLANK”—SECOND BATTLE OF COLD HARBOR.



IN THE 19th of March, 1864, President Lincoln and General Grant met for the first time, and Grant was given his commission as Lieutenant-General and entrusted with all the armies in the field. Thoughtful people had seen for a long time the sore need of a single military head for the armies. From the first, the Union armies had seldom been as well led as the Confederate, and had been placed at a disadvantage by working disjointedly and in parts. As soon as the need for a supreme head was really felt, all eyes were turned toward Ulysses S. Grant as the man best fitted by his independence and decision to fill the place. Sherman was now put in special charge of operations in the West. Halleck was made chief of staff, and his duties henceforth were few. Meade was continued in command of the Army of the Potomac. General B. F. Butler, with the Army of the James, was held for active service in the field. Grant planned a campaign in which he considered the Army of the Potomac his center; the Army of the James, under General Butler, his left wing; the Western armies, under Sherman, his right wing, and the army under Banks, in Louisiana, a force operating in the rear of the enemy. The plan was for all to move simultaneously, and each commander was given an objective point.

The bulk of Lee's army was upon the western edge of the Wilderness, a wild, desolate region twelve or fifteen miles square, lying south of the Rapidan. Here it will be remembered, the battle of Chancellorsville

had been fought in May, 1863. The ground had once been mined for iron ore, and the woods cut for the furnaces of the smelters. A thick second growth of underbrush had sprung up which was indescribably dense, and the whole region presented a melancholy and deserted aspect.

The Army of the Potomac lay north of the Rapidan, opposite the Wilderness. It was organized in three infantry corps, the second, fifth and sixth, respectively commanded by Generals Winfield S. Hancock, G. K. Warren and John Sedgwick, and a cavalry corps commanded by General Philip H. Sheridan. General Meade was still in command of the whole. The ninth corps, under Burnside, nearly twenty thousand strong, was at Annapolis, with its destination unknown. Grant told his secrets to no one, for the whole war had been injured by treachery at Washington, from sources which could only be guessed at, but which kept the Confederates acquainted with every movement of the Union armies. The Army of Northern Virginia, as that portion of the Confederate army opposed to Meade was known, consisted of two infantry corps, commanded by Generals Ewell and Ambrose Hill, with a cavalry commanded by General Stuart, the whole under Robert E. Lee. Longstreet was within reach and furnished an offset to Burnside's corps. Before daylight on the morning of May 4th, the Army of the Potomac marched in two columns for the lower fords of the Rapidan. Lee was unable to dispute the passage of the river, and may have been quite willing to permit the Union army to entangle itself in the Wilderness. Lee was acquainted with every road and by-path of that perplexing region, and believed that he could make up for his deficiency in numbers by bewildering his opponents. Grant wished to hurry the Army of the Potomac past the Wilderness in one day, but Lee proposed to strike upon the flanks of Grant's long columns and cut them in two, as they marched by two winding roads. On the morning of the 5th a body of cavalry came into collision with Ewell. Meade had no idea that it was the opening of a serious battle, and thought that a detachment had been left by Lee merely to mislead. But reinforcements kept coming up on both sides, and the fight never ceased until 4 o'clock in the afternoon, when both sides drew back to intrench themselves. On the morning of the 6th, both Lee and Meade were eager to attack, and they moved almost simultaneously. Throughout the day the fortune of the fight fluctuated. Hasty intrenchments were made, lost and retaken on both sides. About 4 o'clock a fire sprung up in the dry forest, and the wind blew the smoke and flames right in the faces of Hancock's men, who were intrenched behind a breastwork of pine logs. The Confed-

erates swarmed over, but in spite of their determination and of the cruel flames, they were driven back to their own lines. Darkness fell and closed the battle, although Ewell made an attack after dark upon a portion of Sedgwick's corps, capturing two brigades which numbered three thousand men, with hardly any loss to himself. The Union loss in killed and wounded was fifteen thousand, besides five thousand prisoners. The Confederate loss was about ten thousand killed and wounded and a few prisoners. But the advantage was practically on the side of Grant. The Confederates had withdrawn to their intrenchments, and from that time to the end of the campaign they seldom showed any desire to leave them. Lee had conducted the battle in that desolate jungle with the greatest skill, but he now had a general opposed to him who could endure misfortune without being panic-stricken; who knew how to turn everything to his own advantage, and whose obstinate determination was invincible. Lee himself exclaimed after the bloody battle of the Wilderness: "Gentlemen, at last the Army of the Potomac has a head." On the 7th, Sheridan cleared the road for the southern movement of the army, and Grant gave orders to move forward by the left flank to Spottsylvania. To withdraw an army in the presence of a powerful enemy and send it forward to a new position is one of the most difficult feats of war. Grant did this several times before the end of the campaign, and always by withdrawing the corps that held his right flank, and passing it behind the others while they maintained their position. Lee became aware of Grant's movement, and also moved toward Spottsylvania Court House, until there was a race for the possession of that place. A part of the Union troops had held back to guard an attack upon the rear of the moving column, so that finally all of Lee's troops stood intrenched at Spottsylvania. Here, on the 8th of May, the two armies faced each other and waited—the Army of Northern Virginia desperate, the Army of the Potomac determined. On this same day Grant sent Sheridan, with his cavalry, to ride around Lee's army, tear up railroads, destroy bridges and depots and capture trains. Sheridan had been considered a dull man at West Point, and in a class of fifty-two had ranked thirty-four. He was very young at the time, and lacked the confidence of the officials at Washington, but Grant believed in him thoroughly, and Grant's instinct in selecting his lieutenants was always to be trusted. On receiving Grant's orders, he dashed off with his well mounted men, and succeeded in destroying ten miles of railroad, several trains of cars, cutting all the telegraph wire and recapturing four hundred prisoners who had been taken in the battle of

the Wilderness, and were on their way to Richmond. The Confederate cavalry, under General Stuart, set out to intercept him, and succeeded in getting between him and Richmond. Sheridan's troops met them seven miles north of the city, at Yellow Tavern, and after a hard fight defeated them. General Stuart was mortally wounded in this engagement, and by his death the Confederacy lost its best cavalry leader. Sheridan dashed through the outer defenses of Richmond and took some prisoners, then finding the remainder of the defenses too strong for him, he crossed the Chickahominy and rejoined the army on the 25th.

As the Union army came into position before the intrenchment of Spottsylvania, Hancock's corps held the western end of the line, Warren's stood next, then Sedgwick's, and then Burnside's. On the 8th of the month General Sedgwick had been killed by an unerring sharpshooter who appeared to be posted in a tree, and in the course of the day killed at least twenty men who attempted to place the batteries. General Horatio G. Wright succeeded Sedgwick in command of the sixth corps. On the evening of the 9th a division of Hancock's had a short engagement and suffered considerable loss without accomplishing anything. The next two days were spent in maneuvering and fighting without decisive results. On the 11th of January, Grant sent a dispatch to the War Department, saying: "We have now ended the sixth day of very hard fighting. The result of this day is much in our favor. Our losses have been heavy, as well as those of the enemy. I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." The Confederate loss had been, in fact, far less than the Union, for the Confederates were fighting behind intrenchments. These intrenchments were very strong, and search as he might, Grant could find no weak point.

In the grey, foggy morning of May 12th, Hancock's corps dashed upon Lee's center, which was a salient angle thrust forward from the main line. Hancock succeeded in sweeping back the Confederate pickets by mere force of the charge. He passed the abatis and carried the breastworks, making prisoners of three thousand of Ewell's men. Little was gained, however, by the carrying of this salient, which was an outwork of no great importance. Ewell, strongly supported, stood beyond a second fortification, and Hancock was unable to move him. The battle of this day is not easy to describe. The men charged over and over again; the losses were heavy on both sides; little was gained, and no action of great peculiarity marked the day. During the next week Grant received reinforcements and resumed his flanking movements. Lee tried an attack, but was repelled. On the morning of the

22d, that general looked in vain for the army of the Potomac. It had disappeared. Lee could easily guess its destination. He broke up his camps and threw himself across its line of advance toward Richmond. When Grant reached the North Anna, he found Lee awaiting him upon the other side, and disposed to seriously oppose his crossing the river. The corps of Hancock and Warren were sent across the river at points four miles apart, and Lee wedged his force between two columns. Grant saw that one of these might be shattered, and drew them both back, resuming his old flanking movements on the 26th. Lee was quite heavily reinforced while on the North Anna, and at the close of May was back at the Chickahominy, where a battle had been fought two years before. Lee was there before Grant and behind strong fortifications. On the 3d of June, in the drizzling rain of the early morning, the second battle of Cold Harbor began. General Barlow's division stormed and carried the first line of Confederate intrenchments. From a second line a shower of lead was poured upon them, and when they fell back they left half their number behind them. Two more attempts were made, both equally unavailing, except that a considerable number of prisoners were taken. The entire loss of the Union army at Cold Harbor, in the first twelve days of June, was ten thousand and fifty-eight, and among these were many valuable officers. There had been an almost constant skirmishing. From the dusk of the morning till the dusk of the evening the continual crack of the rifle was heard. The Confederate position was very strong. The line was from three to six miles from the outer defences of Richmond, the right resting on the Chickahominy, and the left protected by the woods and swamps about the headwaters of several small streams. The only chance for attack was in front. On the 3d of June, at half past 4 o'clock in the morning, the second, sixth and eighteenth corps moved forward rapidly together, to try what could be done by an attack on the front. Barlow's division of Hancock's corps struck a salient, and fought hand-to-hand till they captured it, taking nearly three hundred prisoners, and three guns, which they promptly turned upon the enemy. But beyond the first line no division, however determined, could go, and trenches were rapidly dug, behind which the men could protect themselves. Thus closed the twelve days' fighting.

It was evident that nothing could be done by an attack on Lee's front, and Grant decided to put his army into a new position. He sent part of his cavalry to the James, above Richmond, for the purpose of destroying portions of Lee's line of supplies from the Shenandoah valley,

and then prepared intrenchments from his position at Cold Harbor to the point where he expected to cross the Chickahominy. Grant was then in readiness to march his army from before the face of the enemy for fifty miles, to cross two rivers and bring it into a new position. The bridges on the Chickahominy had been destroyed, but each column carried a pontoon train. The long lines of infantry, artillery and trains crossed over the river at many different points, and an army of more than one million was placed in a position threatening the Confederate capital, and the Confederates saw that the end was near and certain. Through the rest of the war they fought with a passion which showed their desperation.

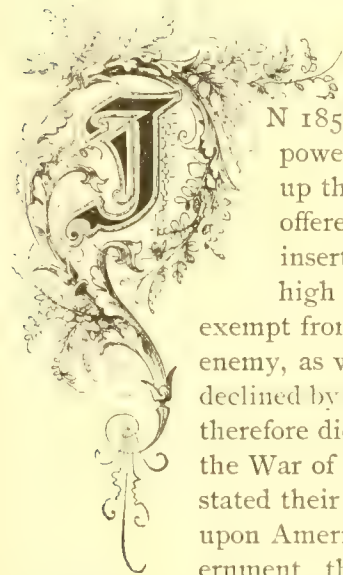
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Down's "Four Years a Scout and Spy."
Edwards' "Noted Guerrillas."
Eggleston's "A Rebel's Recollections."
Grant's "History of the Rebellion."
Lemour's "Morgan and His Captors."
FICTION—"The American Mail-bag."
E. Eggleston's "Roxy."
POETRY—J. G. Whittier's "In War Time."

CHAPTER XCVII.

The Confederate Cruisers.

THE CONFEDERATE PRIVATEERS—FIGHT BETWEEN THE "KEARSARGE" AND "ALABAMA"—THE INTERNATIONAL COURT OF ARBITRATION—SHERMAN AND THE WESTERN CAMPAIGN.



IN 1856, a treaty was signed at Paris by the great powers of Europe, by which they agreed to give up the right of privateering. The United States offered to sign this on condition that a clause be inserted declaring that private property on the high seas, if not contraband of war, should be exempt from seizure by the *public* armed vessels of an enemy, as well as the private ones. This amendment was declined by the European powers, and the United States therefore did not become a party to the treaty. When the War of Secession began, the Confederate authorities stated their intention of arming private vessels to prey upon American commerce, and the United States Government then offered to accept the treaty without amendment. England and France, however, refused to permit our Government to join in the treaty then, if its provisions against privateering were to be understood as applying to vessels sent out under Confederate authority. The Confederacy was therefore unhindered in its privateering enterprises, and not only kept a score of cruisers roaming about the seas to prey upon United States commerce, but had the satisfaction of knowing that more would be built for her at any time she wished, in the best ship-yards of England. Among her cruisers were the *Shenandoah*, which made thirty-eight captures, the *Florida*, which made twenty-six, the *Tallahassee*, which made twenty-seven, the *Tacony*, which made fifteen, and the *Georgia*, which made ten. Still more famous than these were the *Sumpter* and *Alabama*. The *Alabama*

had been built for the Confederate Government in 1862, at Birkenhead, opposite Liverpool. She was an excellent sailor, carried both canvas and steam, was two hundred and twenty feet long, and, though of wood, a very formidable vessel. The British Government was notified by the American Minister at London that such a ship was being built in an English yard, in violation of the neutrality laws, and demanded that she be prevented from leaving the yard. But the English Government was not over-anxious to prevent her escape, and moved so slowly that the cruiser escaped to sea. Her crew were mostly Englishmen, but she was commanded by Raphael Semmes, who had served in the United States Navy. She roamed about the Atlantic and Indian Oceans and the Gulf of Mexico for nearly two years, and captured sixty-nine American merchantmen, most of which were burned at sea, while their crews were put on shore at some convenient port or sent away on passing vessels. The *Alabama* was always kindly received in foreign ports, for she was helping to ruin American commerce. None of the war vessels which had been sent after her had been able to capture her, because of the rule that when two hostile vessels are in a neutral port, the first that leaves must have been gone twenty-four hours before the other is permitted to follow. But in June, 1864, the United States man-of-war *Kearsarge*, commanded by John A. Winslow, found the *Alabama* in the harbor of Cherbourg, France. Winslow did not go into port at all, and thus escaped the twenty-four-hour rule. The *Alabama* had no desire to escape the *Kearsarge*, and her commander sent out a note asking Winslow not to go away. The request was quite unnecessary. The *Kearsarge* waited patiently, till on Sunday morning, June 19th, the *Alabama*, watched and applauded by thousands of Englishmen and Frenchmen, sailed out to crush the *Kearsarge*. The vessels were a very fair match in point of size and armament. When they were seven or eight miles from the coast, the *Alabama* opened fire, and the two vessels steamed around on opposite sides of a circle half a mile in diameter, firing their starboard guns. The gun practice on the *Alabama* was very bad; that on the *Kearsarge* was excellent. She threw balls in at the port-holes of her enemy, and swept away whole crews of gunners. She felled the mizzen mast with a shot, and pierced the hull below the water line, letting floods of water into the hold. Before an hour had passed the *Alabama* struck her colors, and her officers threw their swords into the sea in token of surrender. While the *Kearsarge* was lowering boats to take off the crew, the *Alabama*, with a shudder and a plunge, went to the bottom of the English Channel. The *Kearsarge* succeeded

in rescuing some of the men, and an English yacht saved Semmes and about forty of his crew, but a considerable number were drowned. Captain Semmes had been defeated once before by the *Kearsarge*, when he commanded the *Sumpter*. That vessel, after a career in which she succeeded in capturing many American vessels, was blockaded by the United States steamers *Kearsarge* and *Tuscarora*, in the harbor of Gibraltar, in February of 1862, and was there abandoned by her captain and crew.

In 1872, the International Court of Arbitration, sitting in Geneva, Switzerland, decided that the British Government, for neglecting to prevent the escape of Confederate cruisers from its ports, must pay the United States Government fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars. This sum fell far short of the damage which had been done, but the United States cared less for the money than for the establishment of the principle.

While the army of the Potomac was putting itself in position for a death-grapple with the army of North Virginia, important movements were going on at the West. The purpose of these was to secure the Mississippi river absolutely, and to set free the large garrisons required to hold the important places on its banks. General Sherman set out from Vicksburg on the 3d of February, 1864, with a force of over twenty thousand men. His destination was Meridian, over one hundred miles east of Vicksburg, where two important railroads cross each other. The Union troops entered the town on the 14th, and destroyed the Confederate arsenal and store-houses, as well as the machine shops, the stations and railways. The rails were heated and then bent and twisted, and were popularly known as "Jeff Davis' neckties," and "Sherman's hair-pins." The roads were thoroughly destroyed, every mill and factory ruined, and only the dwelling-houses left untouched. A detachment of cavalry, which Sheridan had sent out to destroy Forrest's Confederate cavalry, having failed in its purpose, Sherman thought best to return to Vicksburg. He was followed to that city by thousands of negroes, who could be turned back neither by persuasion nor threats, and who saw in Sherman a deliverer whom it was their duty and pleasure to follow. On the west side of the Mississippi, General Banks attempted to perform a service somewhat similar to that of Sherman's, for the purpose of widening the gap in the Confederacy. He set out with about fifteen thousand men, in March, for Shreveport, at the head of steam navigation on the Red river. Here he was to be joined by ten thousand men, under General A. J. Smith, who had been detached

from Sherman's army for the occasion, and Commodore David Porter, with a fleet of gunboats and transports. Smith and Porter arrived promptly at the rendezvous, captured Fort De Russey, below Alexandria, and after Banks' arrival, the army moved along the river roads within sight of the gunboats. This march was continued for many days, the monotony being broken by an occasional skirmish with small bodies of Confederate troops, and slight demonstrations from the gun-



PICKING COTTON.

boats. The army was strung out for twenty miles on a single road, and walked along easily, not displeased with the comparative quiet. They were punished for this carelessness by coming suddenly upon a strong Confederate force, commanded by General Richard Taylor, near the Sabine Cross-roads. Neither commander intended that there should be a battle, but the men of both sides became much excited, and it was necessary on both sides to keep bringing forward men, until at last Banks' line suddenly gave way. The cavalry and teamsters rushed in confusion

and fear before the victorious Confederates. Three miles in the rear, the nineteenth corps stood the tide of the rout, and successfully repelled the Confederates. Banks fell back to Pleasant Hill, where, on the following day, he had nearly his whole force in line. The Confederates made an assault late in the afternoon, and were repelled. Banks followed this up by an attack on his own part, and recaptured several of the guns he had lost the day before. Banks had been ordered to return Smith's borrowed troops, and, therefore, could not follow up his victory, but fell back to the river Ecore. Here it was found that the river had so fallen as to make it impossible for the fleet to pass down the rapids, and it was feared that the boats would be taken and destroyed. They were saved by the ingenuity of Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph Bailey, who, though scoffed at by the army engineers, built a dam across the river in eight days, in which he left a narrow passage, though which the water rushed like a mill-race. Within a few days the entire fleet passed through this swirling stream of water and steamed down the Mississippi.

Fifteen thousand troops, under General Steele, had marched from Little Rock toward Shreveport, to reinforce Banks, but were defeated by the same force of Confederates who had engaged in the battles of Sabine Cross-roads and Pleasant Hill.

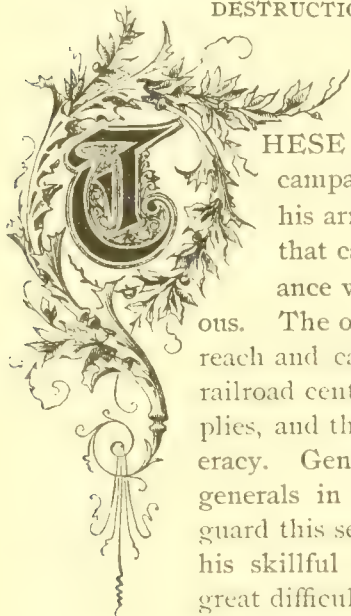
FOR FURTHER READING.

- HISTORY—Cannon's "Cashed Papers upon the Alabama."
Semmes' "Cruise of the Alabama."
Ammen's "The Atlantic Coast."
Mahan's "The Gulf and Inland Waters."
Soley's "The Blockade and the Cruisers."
FICTION—W. H. Thome's "Running the Blockade."
POETRY—T. B. Read's "Kent-sarge and the Alabama."

CHAPTER XCVIII.

“After You, Pilot!”

SHERMAN'S MARCH TO ATLANTA—THE BOMBARDMENT OF MOBILE—
DESTRUCTION OF THE “ALBEMARLE.”



THESE two expeditions only heralded the great campaign which Sherman was to undertake with his army, and which was to be simultaneous with that carried on by Grant in Virginia. Its importance was almost as great, its difficulties as numerous. The object was to move forward to Chattanooga, reach and capture Atlanta, which was important as a railroad center and for its manufacture of military supplies, and thus sweep a great swath through the Confederacy. General Joseph E. Johnston, one of the best generals in the Confederate service, had been left to guard this section of country, and Sherman realized that his skillful opposition could only be overcome with great difficulty. Chattanooga is a hundred miles from Atlanta, through a country of many hills and streams, well adapted for an army acting on the defensive. Johnston was the man to make the most of this. He had an army numbering fifty-five thousand, while Sherman had one hundred thousand. But the practical difference was not great, for Sherman was not only to act on the offensive, but to leave heavy detachments behind him from day to day to guard his communications, for all of his supplies were drawn from Nashville, over one single-track railroad, which was liable to be broken at any time. Thus Sherman was obliged to stretch out his army like a great elastic string, while Johnston could keep his well massed, and would also have the advantage of fighting on the defensive. Sherman's men were well supplied, but were permitted to take nothing which should hamper them in their daring march. General Thomas was the only man in the army who was allowed a tent. Sherman himself had

neither tent nor wagon train. Every man, from Sherman down, carried five days' provisions on his back.

On May 5th, the army left Chattanooga and followed the line of the railroad south toward Atlanta. Sherman sent McPherson southward to march through a gap in the mountains, strike Resaca and cut the railroad over which Johnston drew all his supplies. McPherson reached Resaca, but found such a force there that instead of attacking boldly, he fell back to the gap and waited for the rest of the army to join him. By this time Johnston had learned what was going on, and had concentrated his forces in a strong position at Resaca, where Sherman faced him on May 14th. The day was given up to skirmishing, for neither general was willing to fight at a disadvantage. Sherman threw two pontoon bridges across the river that he might send a detachment to break the railroad, and McPherson gained a position where his guns could destroy the railroad bridge in the Confederate rear. Johnston thought it best to hasten away from a place in which he was becoming so cramped, and on the 15th crossed the river and moved southward, burning the bridges behind him. By pontoons and fords, Sherman's forces hurried after. When Sherman was a young lieutenant he had ridden through the country from Charleston, South Carolina, to Northwestern Georgia, and he still remembered how the land lay and the rivers ran. He knew that Allatoona Pass, through which the railroad south of Kingston runs, was very strong, and could be easily held by Johnston. He therefore directed his columns in such a way as to threaten Marietta and Atlanta, so as to cause Johnston to withdraw from Allatoona and leave the railroad, which, as Sherman's army advanced into the country, became more and more necessary to it. Johnston moved westward to meet this movement, and the forces met at the cross-roads by New Hope Church. For six days there was constant skirmishing around this place, and in the end, though little had been gained, the advantage was with Sherman. He succeeded in securing all the wagon roads from Allatoona, and in sending out a strong force to occupy the pass and repair the railroad. Johnston took up a new position on the slopes of the Kennesaw, Pine and Lost mountains. From here, he could see everything that was done by Sherman's army. That army did not try to get out of sight, but moved closer and closer, by intrenchments. For several days heavy rains kept Sherman from acting, but as soon as fair weather came, steady skirmishing was kept up between the two lines, and the loss of men on both sides was heavy.

On June 14th, the Confederate army suffered the loss of General Leonidas Polk, who stood by a battery on the crest of Pine Mountain, with a group of officers examining the field with their glasses. General Polk had been for twenty years the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Louisiana, and in his death the Confederacy lost one of its most influential men. On June 15th, Sherman found that Johnston had withdrawn from Pine Mountain, and promptly occupied the ground himself, taking a large number of prisoners. On the following day the enemy had abandoned Lost Mountain and retreated to works prepared for them by gangs of slaves, on the Kennesaw, where they were able to cover Marietta and the roads to Atlanta. On the 27th, Sherman decided to attack the enemy in his intrenchments, and launched heavy columns against them, while a steady fire was kept up all along the line. This experiment cost Sherman over twenty-five hundred men, and gained nothing, for though his men charged valiantly, only a few reached the enemy's works, and these were killed or captured. Sherman therefore decided on an action which required the utmost boldness, and which was against the rules of warfare, to-wit: He left his communications, took ten days' provisions in wagons, and moved his whole army southward to seize the road below Marietta. He did this by moving by the right flank, in the same cautious manner that Grant had done in his difficult march from the Wilderness to the James river. Johnston fell back to the Chattahoochee, but instead of crossing the stream, put himself behind a magnificent piece of field fortification which a thousand slaves had been working on for a month. But Sherman held the river above and below and was able to cross when he chose, and Johnston, realizing Sherman's advantages, crossed in the night with his entire army, and burned the railroad and other bridges behind him. On the 17th of July, Sherman cautiously followed, moving his army by a grand right wheel, toward the city of Atlanta. At this point, Johnston, who had so cautiously and skillfully evaded his opponent, was removed, and the command given to General John B. Hood, a man capable of reckless fighting, but lacking Johnston's skill and wisdom. Sherman knew that sudden sallies were to be expected now, and on July 20th, as the Union troops were entering Atlanta, Hood's men left the intrenchments prepared for them along the line of Peach Tree creek, and attacked. At the end of two hours the enemy was driven back to his intrenchments, leaving hundreds of dead on the field. A day or two later the Confederates fell back to the immediate defenses of the city.

On the 22d, Hood moved out with a part of his army, and attacked

a detachment of Sherman's men, who had been left without proper protection upon a hill. The forest hid him till his men burst upon the camp, and the troops were taken entirely by surprise. But under the direction of General Logan and others, the surprised forces rallied and repulsed seven fierce charges. A counter-charge finally drove back the Confederates. The Union loss in the battle of Atlanta was three thousand five hundred and twenty-one men killed, wounded and missing, and ten guns. The Confederate loss was larger. General McPherson was killed in the woods, where he had ridden alone at the first sound of battle. He was a young man, and a brilliant one, popular with the soldiers, and of no little assistance to Sherman. General Howard was promoted to McPherson's place, in command of the Army of the Tennessee, and General Hooker resigned, because he thought that the position should have been given him. General Henry W. Slocum was given Hooker's command of the twentieth corps. On the 28th, when Sherman moved again by the right, Hood made a heavy attack, which Logan repelled with a loss to himself of five hundred and seventy-two men. Sherman constantly sent out cavalry expeditions to break the railroads south of Atlanta, but as fast as he broke, the Confederates repaired them. Kilpatrick's cavalry rode entirely around Atlanta, defeated a combined cavalry and infantry force, and thought he had done damage enough to the railroad to keep supplies from entering the city for ten days, but before twenty-four hours the enterprising Confederates had trains running into the city again. Finding that these raids accomplished but little, Sherman again moved by the right, and swung his army into position south of Atlanta, and then advanced toward the city. The greater part of Hood's force escaped eastward on the night of September 1st, and, a few days later, Sherman made his headquarters in the city and took permanent possession.

Grant and Sherman had planned to have the city of Mobile taken by forces moving east from New Orleans and Port Hudson. The principal defences of Mobile Bay were Fort Morgan, on Mobile Point, and Fort Gaines, three miles northwest of it. The passage between these two forts was obstructed by many piles and a line of torpedoes. The eastern end of this line was marked by a red buoy, and from that point to Fort Morgan the channel was open to allow blockade runners to pass. The plan was to have Farragut's fleet pass these forts, subdue the Confederate fleet inside, and take possession of the bay. A land force to co-operate with him was furnished, under General Gordon Granger. Farragut's fleet consisted of four iron-clad monitors and

seven wooden sloops of war. Each sloop had a gunboat lashed to her side, to help her out in case she was disabled. On the 4th of August all the ships were under way, the *Brooklyn* going first and carrying an apparatus for picking up torpedoes. The forts and the Confederate fleet opened fire upon them half an hour before they could bring their guns to answer. Farragut's flag-ship, the *Hartford*, suffered especially. She received a one-hundred-and-twenty-pound ball in her mainmast, and



LIEUTENANT ALDRICH'S ATTACK ON THE "ALBATROSS."

had great splinters sent flying across her deck, which killed and wounded many of her crew. But the *Hartford* and the other vessels weathered the storm, and as they came abreast of the fort, poured in terrific broadsides of shot and shells, and soon quieted the Confederate batteries. It was known that the red buoy marked the line of torpedoes, and the captains had been particularly warned not to pass east of it. But Captain Craven, of the monitor *Tecumseh*, disregarded this order in his

impatience to attack the Confederate ram *Tennessee*, and his vessel struck a torpedo which exploded. As the vessel was rapidly sinking, Captain Craven and his pilot met at the foot of a ladder which afforded the only escape. The pilot moved aside for his superior officer to pass. Craven knew that it was his fault that the accident had occurred, and said, "After you, pilot;" "but," said the pilot, "there was nothing after me, for the moment that I reached the deck, the vessel seemed to drop from under me and went to the bottom."

Farragut was lashed in the rigging of the *Hartford*, and ordering steam on his vessel, led the whole line past the dangerous torpedoes. He succeeded in sending the *Tennessee*, the Confederate iron-clad, off for a time, and sent his gunboats in pursuit of the enemy's gunboats. These succeeded in destroying or capturing all of the Confederate vessels except one. The iron ram *Tennessee* then steamed boldly into the midst of Farragut's vessels, trying to ruin them with her powerful ram and firing in every direction. She was so heavy and cumbersome that the Union vessels were able to avoid her by skillful management, and the monitors poured solid shot against her armor. When at length they shot away her smoke-stack, life on her became unendurable, and she surrendered. It was a glorious victory, but Farragut, coming down from the shrouds, thought less of the triumph than of the twenty-four dead sailors—long his companions—who were laid out on the deck of the *Hartford*, and over whom the brave old sailor wept some bitter tears.

In October the Confederate iron-clad *Albatross* was destroyed on the Roanoke river. Lieutenant William B. Cushing, of the navy, ventured with a volunteer crew, in a small steam launch, to put a torpedo under her overhang. This exploded and sent her to the bottom, destroying the launch also. The crew of the launch, with the exception of Cushing and one sailor, were lost.

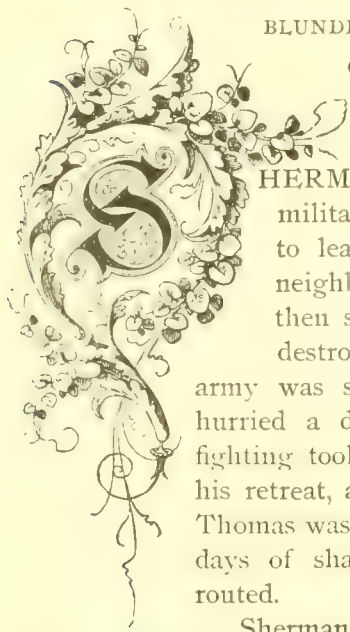
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Andrew's "Campaign of Mobile"
 Logan's "The Great Conspiracy"
 POETRY—L. C. Redden's "Idyls of Battle"
 H. H. Brownell's "Farragut's Bay Fight,"
 FICTION—G. W. Nichols' "The Sanctuary."

CHAPTER XCIX.

From Atlanta to the Sea.

THE MARCH FROM ATLANTA TO THE SEA—THE ENTRANCE TO
SAVANNAH—THE SIEGE OF RICHMOND—BURNSIDE'S
BLUNDER—THE BURNING OF
CHAMBERSBURG.



SHERMAN converted Atlanta into a purely military post, and ordered all the inhabitants to leave the town. Hood lingered about the neighborhood till the first of September, and then set out to Tennessee with the purpose of destroying the railroads, by which the national army was supplied. Sherman guessed his designs, hurried a detachment to check him, and some fierce fighting took place about Allatoona. Hood continued his retreat, and early in December reached Nashville. Thomas was awaiting him at this place, and, after two days of sharp conflict, the Confederates were utterly routed.

Sherman now set out on his march from Atlanta to the sea, a distance of two hundred and twenty-five miles, in a straight line. His object was to destroy the railroads in Georgia, which would deal a more fatal blow to the Confederacy than even the seizure of the Mississippi had done. He made the most thorough preparations. His army was weeded out; all the sick and disabled sent north; every luxury dispensed with, and every necessity provided for. The presidential election was at hand, and before the army departed, commissioners came and took the votes of the soldiers. Every detachment of the army was given the most minute instructions, and on the twelfth of November, as the army whirled out of Atlanta, the road was destroyed behind them, the depot, machine-shops and locomotive house torn down, and fire set to the ruins. Every man in the army was a

veteran. There was the most perfect confidence in Sherman. Each man was, to an extent, in his confidence; knew what he was to do, why he was to do it, and was determined to perform his part. The army was to live, for the most part, upon the country. The soldiers were forbidden to enter dwelling-houses, but foraging parties were to daily gather sufficient vegetables and drive in any stock which was in sight of the encampment. At least ten days' provisions were to be kept in the wagons. Whenever the army was unmolested no houses or mills were to be destroyed, but if guerillas were to appear, or if the line was especially annoyed, the army commanders were permitted to order a retaliation.

Frantic appeals were put forth to the people of Georgia, by the Governor of the State, to stay the march of this army. The Secretary of War sent word that the enemy could now be destroyed, if the people would only arise and protect their native soil. But there were no people, or at least no men, to arise. Almost every able-bodied man in the State was in the war. Thus Sherman's great army swept on through the heart of the Confederacy, meeting with no opposition worth speaking of until the heads of the columns were within sixteen miles of Savannah. Here the roads leading to the city were found to be obstructed by felled timber, with earthworks and artillery; but Sherman's forces, who had torn up more railroads, cleared more roads, and built more bridges than any other portion of the national army, were not easily stayed by a few felled trees and some earthworks. When torpedoes and shells were found buried in the ground, the Confederate prisoners were made to remove them. Fort McAllister, fifteen miles below Savannah, was the only real obstacle in the way. This hindered communication with the fleet, and it was therefore necessary to carry it. This Sherman did on the thirteenth. He then demanded the surrender of the city. This was refused by General Hardee, who was in command at that point. Sherman prepared for a regular siege, but on the twenty-first of December, 1864, Hardee left the city, marching his force toward Charleston, and Sherman entered it the following day. Sherman wrote to the President: "I beg to present you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns, plenty of ammunition, and about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." The President received this message on Christmas eve, and it was the first word which he had heard from that vast army for over a month. Sherman's entire loss in the march had been seven hundred and sixty-four men. He had struck directly at the source of the Confederate

supplies, and had accomplished a great purpose with but little destruction of life.

Meanwhile, Mr. Lincoln was rechosen President, in spite of the personal abuse that was heaped upon him, and the declaration of a large portion of the North that the war was a failure. That it was not so, was owing largely to the combined action of Sherman and Grant. In Virginia, events had so shaped themselves that the campaign took the form of a siege of Richmond. Lee was confident in his belief that his seventy thousand men could hold this well-fortified city against any force that could be brought against it, so long as his army was fed. To reach Richmond, it was necessary for Grant to carry Petersburg, which was the focus to which several roads converged. Five railroads entered this point, besides several plank roads and turnpikes. These railroads formed the main means of supply for the Confederate force, after those of the valley of the Shenandoah had been thoroughly interrupted—and Grant saw to it that they were interrupted. Petersburg was not strongly fortified, and on the 14th of June a feeble movement was made by General Smith against the place, which was not successful. On the 16th Grant himself superintended a forcible attack. The Confederates made a stout defense, but late in the day rushed back in full flight. They were stayed, however, by a single fresh brigade, and night put an end to the fighting. In the darkness, Beauregard drew off his disordered troops to an unfortified position, and worked them all night throwing up intrenchments. Lee, now realizing the importance of Petersburg, hurried large reinforcements down from Richmond. On the 17th the contest for the Confederate lines was renewed, and Hancock and Burnside carried it at a cost of four thousand men. On the following day the Confederates moved back to their inner lines, which were too strong to be attacked, and Grant contented himself with enveloping Petersburg with his army. The siege was regularly opened on the 19th of June. Grant's first attempt against the railroad was on the 21st of June, against the Weldon road, which was the most important one. The two detachments which were sent out for this purpose were nearly at right angles with each other, but were not in connection, and did not sufficiently guard their flanks. A heavy Confederate force, under General A. P. Hill, coming out to meet the movement, drove straight into the gap between the forces, and succeeded in capturing seventeen hundred men and four guns. The fighting was not severe, but the movement against the railroads was checked. Hill withdrew to his intrenchments. The Union lines were re-established on this flank,

and nothing of importance occurred here till the middle of August. But near the center of the line in front of Burnside's corps there was great interest felt in a tunnel which was being dug by a regiment of Pennsylvania miners. These were directed under the nearest point of the Confederate works, and the digging was begun in a ravine, to be out of sight of the enemy, the earth being carried in cracker-boxes and hidden under the brushwood. This mine, planned by Burnside, was five hundred and twenty feet long, with lateral branches at the head forty feet in each direction, and charged with eight thousand pounds of gunpowder. It was exploded on the afternoon of July 30th. A great mass of earth, two hundred feet long, sixty feet wide and thirty feet deep, shot up into the air and fell, leaving a crater into which fully fifty thousand Union troops poured. These were unable to climb its sides, and the Confederates, after the first shock of horror had passed, poured a plunging fire over the brink. Not till eight terrible hours had passed were the troops ordered to leave the crater, which they did by one narrow passage. The Union lost four thousand men in this engagement. The Confederates not more than one thousand. Burnside, distressed past expression at the failure of the movement, begged to be relieved from his command, and his corps was given to Parke.

Lee had become so confident of his position at Richmond that he sent a considerable force to the aid of Early, who, for some time had been operating in the valley of the Shenandoah. The defenses of Washington had been nearly stripped of troops to reinforce the Army of the Potomac, and Early hoped to take the National Capital by a sudden dash. On the 10th of July he came within six miles of Washington without meeting much show of resistance. There was great alarm in the capital. The citizens, Government clerks and Government officials armed themselves to defend the city. Fortunately, Early halted for two days, and in the meantime Grant sent the sixth corps from before Petersburg, and the nineteenth, by water, from Hampton Roads. These reached Washington just in time to save it, and on the 12th Early retreated across the Potomac with a great quantity of booty. Little attempt was made to follow him, and within two weeks he made a raid into Pennsylvania. His cavalry, three hundred strong, entered Chambersburg on the 30th, and stated that unless two hundred thousand dollars in gold was immediately paid, the town should surely be burned. As this amount of money could not be produced by the citizens, the village was given to the flames. All these disasters Grant clearly saw were owing to the want of an efficient commander for that

department, and he hastened to Harper's Ferry, accepted Hunter's resignation, and appointed Sheridan to the command of all the troops in West Virginia and about Washington.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Boynton's "Sherman's Historical Raid."

Cox's "Marching to the Sea."

Cannon's "Grant's Richmond Campaign."

Taylor's "Four Years with General Lee."

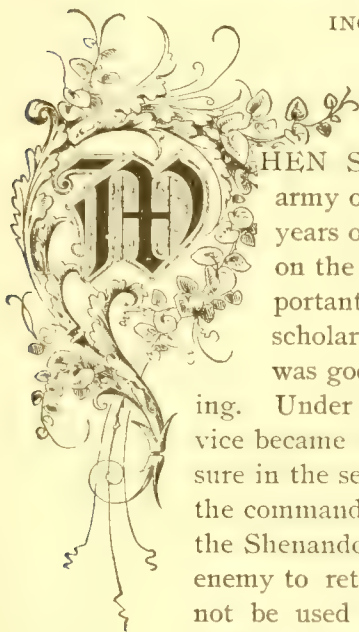
POETRY—C. G. Halpin's "Song of Sherman's Army."

J. G. Whittier's "Howard at Atlanta."

CHAPTER C.

Whirling Through Winchester.

SHERIDAN AND THE SHENANDOAH CAMPAIGN—SHERMAN'S MARCH
NORTHWARD FROM SAVANNAH—THE BURN-
ING OF COLUMBIA.



WHEN Sheridan was placed in command of the army of the Shenandoah he was but thirty-three years old, and Secretary Stanton objected to him on the grounds that he was too young for so important a command. He had not been a brilliant scholar at West Point, but in the army his record was good. He had, in short, a genius for fighting. Under his direction the cavalry of the Union service became unconquerable. Grant, whose instinct was sure in the selection of his assistants, persisted in giving the command to him. His instructions were to push up the Shenandoah valley, and leave nothing to invite the enemy to return. Such stock and provisions as could not be used were to be destroyed. The Shenandoah valley ran like a fertile road between the mountain walls,

and down this the Confederate force could be launched at almost any time upon Washington. So fruitful was this valley that it furnished the chief source of supplies for the Confederate army, and was a stronghold almost impossible to carry from the sides. To enter it from the end and follow a Confederate army through it was a hazardous matter, but Sheridan undertook it with enthusiasm. Early's main force was on the south bank of the Potomac, above Harper's Ferry, and upon Sheridan's approach he hastened to recall his cavalry, who were gathering wheat upon the battle field of Antietam. Sheridan hastened to move his army toward Winchester to threaten Early's communications and draw him into battle. Early altered his position to cover Winchester, and waited for reinforcements from Lee's army. Grant warned

Sheridan that the force would be too strong for him to attack, and he therefore waited till the Confederates should take the offensive, which they did on August 21, 1864.

The engagement was not of much importance. For three or four weeks following, Early kept his whole force at the lower end of the valley, and amused himself by making raids into Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Maryland. The cavalry indulged in many small engagements, with varying results. Grant and Sheridan agreed thoroughly as to the method of conducting the campaign, and they paid no attention to the criticisms which they received from every quarter. They felt sure that the time would come when Lee would recall part of the forces he had sent into the valley, and that Sheridan could then deal a severe blow to Early.

All happened as they expected. On September 19th, Lee recalled the command which had reinforced Early in August, and at the same time a large part of Early's remaining troops were sent to Martinsburg, twenty miles away. Sheridan, who had been watching Early as a cat does a mouse, knew that the moment had come to spring. Early was east of Winchester; Sheridan along the line of Opequan creek, about five miles east of the city. Early in the morning Sheridan set his troops in motion. The men crossed the stream, passed through a ravine, and by mid-day were in line of battle. In the meantime Early had sent to recall his men from Martinsburg, and his whole force was uniting in front of Winchester.

The battle began along the whole line at once, and never ceased till nightfall. As the afternoon drew near its close Sheridan had the advantage, and he kept his men to their work with a tenacity which discouraged and bewildered the Confederates till they fled through the streets of Winchester in hopeless dismay and escaped up the valley. The Union loss was five thousand; the Confederate loss one thousand less, with two generals and nine battle flags.

Sheridan wrote to Grant that he had "sent Early whirling through Winchester." Early retreated southward and took up a position on Fisher's Hill, where the valley narrows till it is only four miles in width. Here his men began the construction of intrenchments. Sheridan followed promptly and some of his troops gained an eminence overlooking the Confederate intrenchments, and hastened to cut trees and prepared batteries at this point. Sheridan carefully reconnoitred the position himself, and planned to send the greater part of his cavalry through the Luray valley to the rear of the Confederates, thus cutting

off their retreat, and at the same time to attack in front with a portion of the men, while General Crook, with the eighth corps, should make a detour and come in on the enemy's flank. Just at dusk Crook and his men crept silently out of the woods and burst upon Early's left. The Confederates were astounded. Their own intrenchments were used by the enemy against them, and at the front Sheridan pressed promptly on and the enemy fled in dismay. Sheridan's cavalry, however, failed to get through to the rear, and retreat was therefore left open. In the battle of Fisher's Hill the Union loss was about four hundred, and the Confederate about fourteen hundred. Early retreated on through the valley, and Sheridan relentlessly followed until he could safely go no farther.

On October 5th, Sheridan turned about and swept his army like a cloud of locusts through the fertile region, destroying everything except the dwellings. In his report, Sheridan said: "I have destroyed over two thousand barns filled with wheat, hay and farming implements; over seventy mills filled with flour and wheat; have driven in front of the army over four thousand head of stock, and have killed and issued to the troops not less than three thousand sheep."

Early was now reinforced, and he, in turn, pursued Sheridan. On October 7th, the cavalry of both sides indulged in a spirited engagement, in which the Union forces were victors, and captured over three hundred prisoners, eleven guns, and all the wagons of the opposing force. Sheridan halted north of Strasburg, at Cedar creek, and put his army in camp there under General Wright, while he obeyed a summons calling him to Washington to confer about the continuation of the campaign. As the valley had been laid desolate, Early could find nothing for his men and horses to live upon, and he was forced either to leave the valley or attack immediately. He decided to attack, and on the night of the 18th, his soldiers crept silently upon the flank held by Crook's corps, burst upon it with such unexpected fierceness that the men had not time to leave their tents, and many of them were stabbed while they were still sleeping. The nineteenth corps was also routed in confusion, but the sixth stood firm and covered the retreat of the rest. Sheridan was returning from Washington, and when he reached Winchester, heard of the battle. He dashed on for twenty miles and met a stream of fugitives pouring in a headlong rout toward Winchester, but when he shouted, "Face the other way, boys; we are going back to our camps!" the men turned and followed the little general on his foam-covered horse back to the defense. In the afternoon Sheridan himself

attacked, sending his gallant cavalry around both flanks, and breaking the whole Confederate line. All the guns lost in the morning were retaken and twenty-four besides. In the battle of Cedar creek, the Union loss was five thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, of whom seventeen hundred were prisoners taken in the morning and hurried away toward Richmond. The Confederate loss was about thirty-one hundred. This practically ended the campaign in the valley.

The army of the Potomac, before Petersburg, went into winter quarters behind its intrenchments, contenting itself with a constant picket and artillery fire. During the winter the Confederate army suffered greatly. They were sometimes without meat, often without other necessities, and always without luxuries. On the 15th of January, 1865, Fort Fisher, which commands the port at Wilmington, was captured by a combined naval and military expedition under General Alfred H. Terry. This had been an important avenue of supply to the Confederates, and its loss was severely felt. On the 9th of February, 1865, Lee was made Commander-in-chief of all the military forces of the Confederacy. He first appointed General J. E. Johnston as commander of all the troops in Georgia, South Carolina and Florida, and gave him orders to drive back Sherman. Sherman's great army had left Savannah on the 1st of February, sixty thousand strong. The march which Sherman now undertook was much more difficult and dangerous than that from Atlanta to the sea had been. In the former march the army had moved parallel to the courses of the rivers, but in the march through the Carolinas all the streams had to be crossed. Furthermore, Sherman now had for his opponent General Johnston, whose ability even Sherman might well stand in fear of. General Hood, who had been displaced for the reinstatement of Johnston, had met with a severe blow from Thomas, at Nashville, on the 15th of the previous December, and popular opinion had demanded his removal. There was danger, too, that Lee might slip away from his intrenchments, escape the watchful Grant, and launch his whole force against Sherman. The fleet, therefore, co-operated with Sherman; watched his progress from the coast, and finding points where supplies could be reached, and refuge taken, should it be necessary. Sherman met with some opposition, but reached Columbia in a short time. As this was the capital of South Carolina, it was expected that the army would meet with serious opposition, but it was found that the city was only protected by Wade Hampton's cavalry. True, the bridges had been burned, but these were soon rebuilt, and on the 17th of February, Sherman's men marched

into Columbia as Hampton's left it. When they entered, they found the air full of burning flakes of cotton, for innumerable bales had been piled in the streets and set on fire. The city was in flames in many places, and General Sherman ordered his men to aid in extinguishing the fire. Sherman has often been accused of burning the place, but he positively denies all responsibility for it, though he confesses that some of the Union prisoners, who were released upon his arrival in the city, may have assisted in spreading the fire after it had begun. The general gave the citizens five hundred head of cattle, and did what he could to shelter them. However, he destroyed the arsenal and the foundries in which the Confederate paper money was printed. Sherman advanced into North Carolina, hindered slightly by several conflicts which Johnston forced upon him. The march was continued toward Raleigh. Thirty-five miles south of that city, on the 16th of March, the left wing of the army suddenly came upon Hardee's forces, intrenched upon its path. After some hard fighting the Confederates retreated, each side having lost five hundred men. On the 19th of March another sharp engagement took place at Bentonville, in which the Union loss was one thousand six hundred and four men, and the Confederates two thousand three hundred and forty-two. This closed Sherman's operations, and he rested where he was until terms of peace were made.

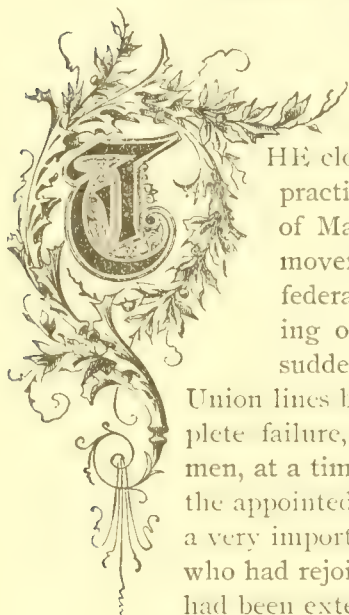
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY—Whitney's "Who Burnt Columbia?"
 Trezevant's "Burning of Columbia."
 Newhall's "With Sheridan in Lee's Last Campaign."
 Pond's "Shenandoah Valley in 1864."
 Humphrey's "Virginia Campaign of '64 and '65,"
 FICTION—J. E. Cooke's "Hilt to Hilt."
 POETRY—T. B. Read's "Sheridan's Ride."

CHAPTER CI.

“Oh, Captain! My Captain!”

CLOSING OF THE VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN—THE EVACUATION OF RICHMOND—SURRENDER OF LEE AT APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE—ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.



THE closing campaign in Virginia, and that which practically ended the war, was begun on the 24th of March, 1865, when Grant ordered that a grand movement be made on the 29th against the Confederate right. Lee hoped to prevent the carrying out of this plan, and on the 25th made a sudden attack at Steedman, near the center of the Union lines before Petersburg. The attempt was a complete failure, and the Confederates lost three thousand men, at a time when they could poorly afford them. On the appointed day and hour Grant's movement was begun, a very important part of it being assigned to Sheridan, who had rejoined the Army of the Potomac. Lee's army had been extended to Five Forks, and on the 1st of April Sheridan attacked this point with such vigor that Lee greatly weakened himself to defend the place. Grant promptly assailed the works at Petersburg, and carried the exterior lines. The end was near. Lee and all of his generals realized this fact. Lee telegraphed to Davis at Richmond, that Petersburg must be immediately abandoned. The news reached Jefferson Davis as he sat in church. He rose quietly, and leaving, made hasty preparations for going south. The night that followed was a terrible one in Richmond. The mob broke loose, plundered warehouses and dwellings, and committed all sorts of outrages. General Ewell, who commanded there, set fire to the bridges and storehouses. There was a high wind, and in a short time a third of Richmond was in flames. Early Monday morning a small body of

Union troops took possession of Richmond, the Confederate capital. They were met by the civil authorities, who announced that the city had been evacuated by the army, and surrendered fully. At 4:30 in the afternoon, the Union flag floated in the murky air above the court house at Petersburg. The Confederates had blown up all their works and were in full retreat. Lee thought that there was still hope for the Confederacy. He desired to gather his widely scattered forces together and to make one more effort. In all he still had forty thousand men. If he could reach Johnston, he thought it might be possible to escape pursuit, and undertake a different sort of warfare. But he had marched out with rations for only one day, expecting to be met with large supplies at Amelia Court House. The directions concerning the supplies were not explicit, and they went straight on, so that Lee found no supplies waiting for him when he reached that place, and had to break up his forces into foraging squads. The Union columns were in close pursuit, and on the 6th of April, Sheridan struck Ewell's corps of the retreating army at Sailor's creek, and took seven thousand prisoners. Weary, disheartened and hungry, the rest of the Confederate army pressed on, fighting passionately whenever they had an opportunity. On the 7th, Grant wrote to Lee proposing to receive the surrender of his army. Lee replied that he did not think the case hopeless, but wished to know what terms could be offered. Grant's nickname in the army was "Unconditional Surrender," and Lee expected that the terms would be severe. But Grant only required that the men surrendering should not take arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged. On the 9th, the two commanders met at Appomattox Court House, and terms of surrender were formally agreed upon. The substance was, that all officers and men should be paroled, all public property be turned over, and each officer and man be allowed to return to his home, not to be disturbed by the United States authorities so long as the paroles were observed and the laws obeyed. The number paroled was twenty-eight thousand eight hundred and five. Of these, not more than eight thousand had muskets in their hands, for the others had flung away their arms in their weary flight. The men were permitted to take their horses with them—Grant said they might need them for plowing. No cheering, firing of salutes, or any other sign of exultation was permitted, and the famished Confederates were fed by their victors.

On the 26th of April, Sheridan, in North Carolina, received the surrender of General Johnston upon the same terms, and the surrender

of all the Confederate armies soon followed. The number of Johnston's immediate command surrendered and paroled was thirty-six thousand eight hundred and seventeen, to whom were added fifty-two thousand four hundred and fifty-three in Georgia and Florida.

In the meantime, the country was shocked by the murder of President Lincoln. On April 14th, it had been his intention to attend the theatre at Washington, with Grant. Grant was unable to attend, and Lincoln, rather than disappoint the people, went, accompanied by his wife and Major Rathbone. An actor whose moving passion had always been an ambition for notoriety, entered his box, shot him, leaped upon the stage with a theatrical cry of "*Sic Semper Tyrannis!*" The South is avenged," and escaped.

At the same time that Lincoln was shot, an unsuccessful attempt was made upon the life of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, in his own house. Mr. Seward was in bed, suffering from injuries received by a fall from his carriage, and the steel casing in which his head was supported saved his life.

It was found that a conspiracy had long been in progress among a few half-crazy Secessionists in and about the capital, and that the murder of Lincoln was the culmination of this. No man has ever been mourned as Mr. Lincoln was. His firmness of character, his kind-heartedness, his foresight and justice, seemed at times almost superhuman. Yet he was a man so eminently of the people, and of such democratic sympathy, that no one felt awed by him. He was one of the best representatives of pure republicanism, a statesman of the noble type which should belong to republics, and a man of such spontaneous and abundant humor that he appealed immediately to the common heart. A portion of his second inaugural address is worth quoting, as it gives an excellent insight into his calm and judicial character:

"Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the cause of the conflict might cease when, or even before, the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph, and a result less fundamental and astonishing. Both read the same Bible and pray to the same God, and each invokes His aid against the other. It may seem strange that any man should dare to ask a just God's assistance in wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces. But let us judge not, that we be not judged. The prayers of both could not be answered; that of neither has been answered fully. If we shall suppose that Ameri-

can slavery is one of those offences which in the providence of God must come, but which, having continued through His appointed time, He now wills to remove, and that He gives to both North and South this terrible war as the woe due to those by whom the offence came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a loving God always ascribes to Him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondsman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said: 'The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether.' With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive to finish the work we are in, to bind up the national wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

Mr. Lincoln was buried at his old home in Springfield, Illinois, which he had left four years before. No day passes that his grave is not visited, and the very clovers which grow about it are treasured in thousands of homes.

FOR FURTHER READING.

HISTORY—Davis' "Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government."

Mahoney's "Prisoner of State."

Raymond's "History of Lincoln's Administration."

Boykin's "Evacuation of Richmond."

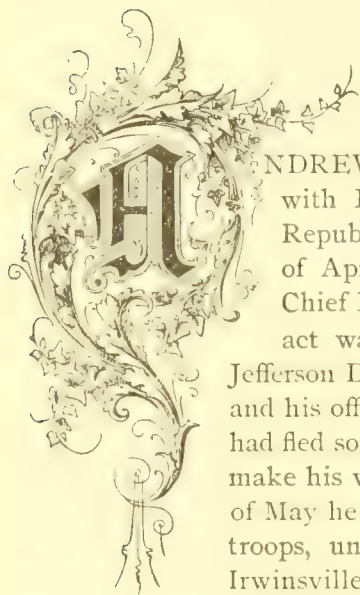
Grayson's "Great Conspiracy. Secret of the Assassination Plot."

POETRY—Florence Anderson's "Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia."

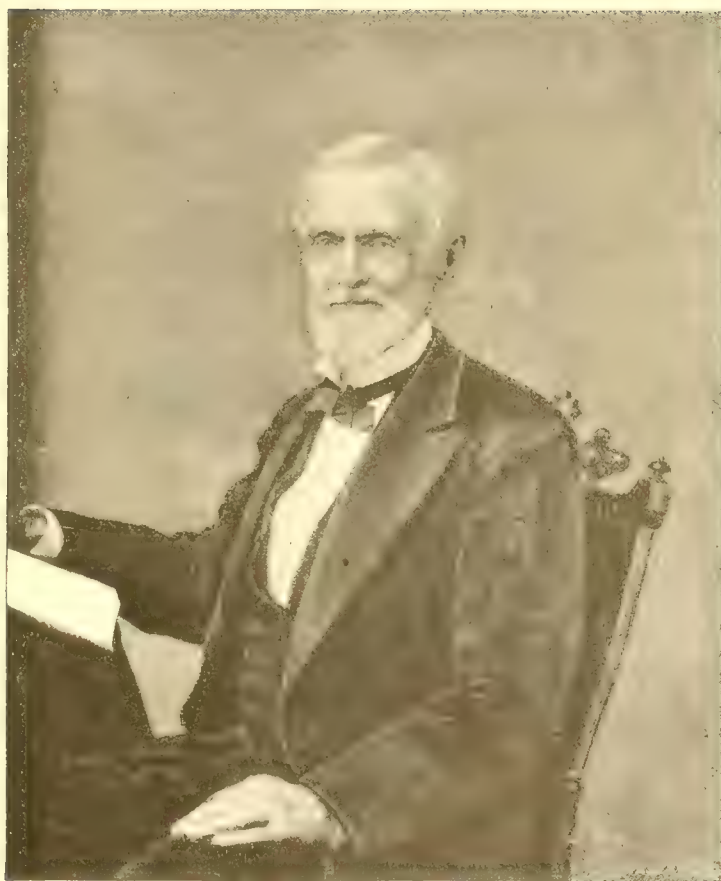
CHAPTER CII.

"Ye Cannot Serve Two Masters."

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON—CAPTURE OF JEFFERSON
DAVIS—RECONSTRUCTION—IMPEACHMENT OF PRESI-
DENT JOHNSON—PURCHASE OF ALASKA—
RETURNING PROSPERITY TO
THE UNION.



ANDREW JOHNSON, of Tennessee, Vice-President with Lincoln, now became the President of the Republic. He took the oath of office on the 15th of April, 1865, thus becoming the seventeenth Chief Magistrate of the United States. His first act was to offer large rewards for the arrest of Jefferson Davis, President of the recent Confederacy, and his official associates. Davis, with a small escort, had fled southward, hoping to reach the Gulf coast and make his way out of the country. But on the 10th of May he was overtaken by a detachment of Federal troops, under Colonel Pritchard. He was then at Irwinsville, in the heart of Southern Georgia. Colonel Pritchard and his men came suddenly upon Davis' encampment in the woods, and captured him while he was trying to make his escape partly disguised in a woman's waterproof cloak. It is said that had not his heavy cavalry boots showed from below the cloak, his identity would not have been suspected. He was taken to Fortress Monroe, and kept there for several months under a charge of high treason. It developed in time that he had nothing to do with the plot for the murder of the President, and as many others were as guilty as he of treason, he was set at liberty upon bail. Cornelius Vanderbilt, Horace Greeley and Gerrit Smith, a life-long Abolitionist, went upon his bond. He has never been tried. As for the murderer of Abraham Lincoln, he died a wretched death. He was shot while defending his



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

From a photograph by W. & A. M. Wood, New York, 1865. (See page 100.)



life in a burning barn, to which his pursuers had followed him, and from which they were trying to drag him. Four of his associates were hanged for complicity in the conspiracy, on the 7th of July, 1865. Three others were sent to the Dry Tortugas for hard labor during life, and another was condemned to six years of hard labor at the same place.

The people of the United States now hoped that these last black pages had closed the book of conspiracy, suffering and death which had marked the War of Secession. The boys—such as were left of them—were sent to their homes. On May 23d, the Army of the Potomac, and Sherman's army on the 24th, were reviewed before the Capitol and disbanded. In every town there were festivities and rejoicings, and in every town, too, there was much sorrow. It had cost the country nearly six hundred thousand lives, and more than six billion dollars to destroy the doctrine of State Sovereignty. But the United States was now established as a nation. Every man within its territory was free, and the people of the North were as magnanimous as possible toward the men they had defeated. The country was scarred with battle fields and graves, but among the judicious there was a desire to forget and to heal.

The task before the National Government was a great one. The people had troubled at the thought of it, even with the calm and just Lincoln to guide them. Without him, it seemed still more serious. To begin with, the financial condition of the country was as bad as it well could be. Gold was far below par. The National debt was two billion seven hundred and fifty-six million four hundred and thirty-one thousand five hundred and seventy-one dollars. The taxes laid upon the people were as high as they could well endure—not that they complained about them. In the States where the insurrection had existed, there was the greatest confusion. The people were divided on the question of what should be done with them. There were those who thought that treason was a crime which could never be regarded as a mere difference of political opinion, and that a crime so serious deserved serious punishment. Others believed that since the seceding States had been forced to remain in the Union, they should be represented upon the same basis, and with the same privileges, as the other States. No provisions had been made in the Constitution for the readmission of a State that had claimed the right to secede, and had withdrawn from the Union. On one hand, there was a fear that the negroes of the South, who outnumbered the whites, might take the

government of the South into their own hands—a most groundless fear to any acquainted with the negro disposition—and on the other hand there was a well-based fear that the negroes might be governed and controlled by their old masters in a spirit utterly at variance with justice and humanity. President Johnson did not understand how a State could be punished for treason. He therefore issued proclamations of qualified amnesty, removed the blockade from the ports as well as the restriction upon commercial intercourse with the border States. He appointed resident civilians as provisional governors over North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi and Texas. He asked these States to hold conventions, with a view of organizing State governments, and for the purpose of securing the election of representatives to Congress. The States were required to repeal the ordinances of secession, accept the abolition of slavery, repudiate the Southern war debts, and ratify, by a vote of the people, the several constitutional amendments. Before Congress met, in December, five States had formed with constitutions, and elected State officers and representatives to Congress. The Republicans were not satisfied with what the President had done, and looked to Congress for some modification of his action.

While Mr. Johnson's reorganization policy was causing those who engaged in the rebellion to congratulate themselves upon the ease with which they had escaped punishment, eleven different States prepared laws which were in direct defiance to liberty. These laws were called the "Black Codes" in the North. Mississippi enacted a law denying the ex-slave the right to acquire and dispose of public property. In several States, it was made a criminal offence, punishable with fine and imprisonment, for a freedman to leave his employer before the expiration of the term of service prescribed in a written contract. In one State, it was made a criminal offence for a negro to intrude himself into any religious or other assembly of white persons, into any railroad car or other public vehicle set apart for the exclusive accommodation of white people, upon conviction of which he should be sentenced to stand in a pillory for one hour, or be whipped not exceeding thirty-nine stripes, or both at the discretion of the jury.

When Congress met in December, 1865, with a Republican majority in both Houses, it hastened to appoint a committee to inquire into the condition of the States which formed the so-called Confederacy of America, and report whether they were entitled to be represented in either House of Congress. This committee was known as the Recon-

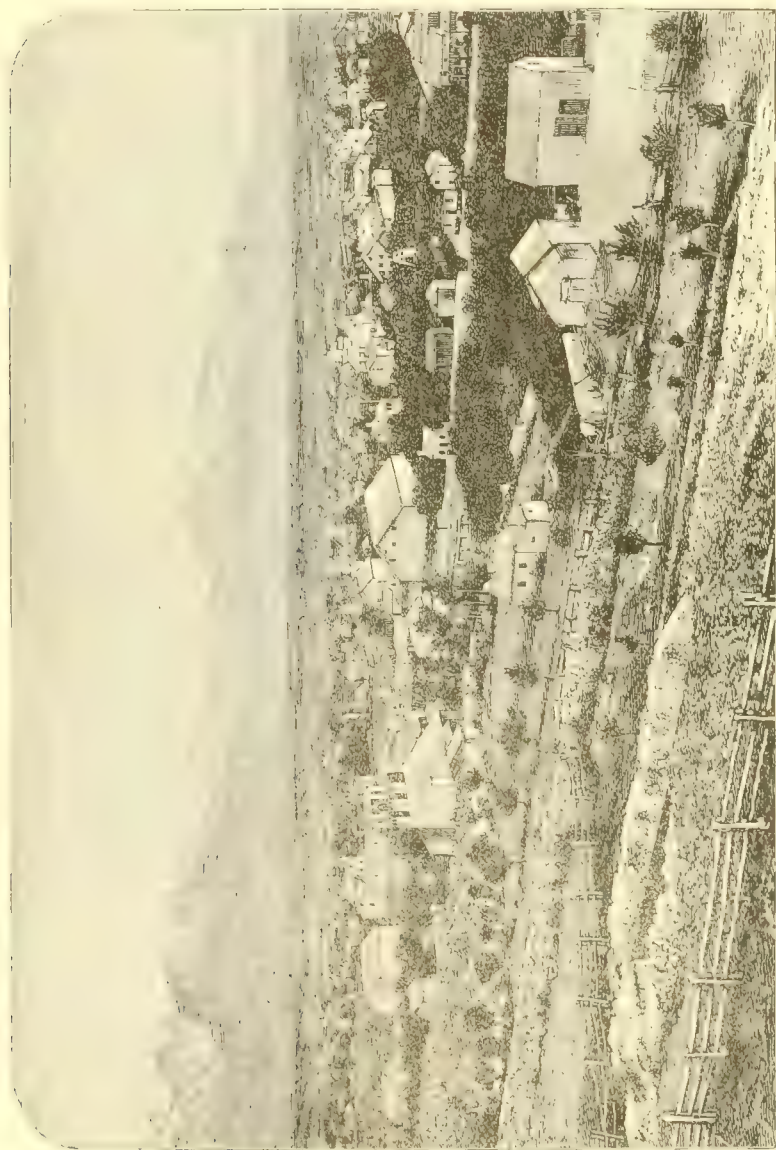
struction Committee, and their report was looked for by Congress and the entire nation with the utmost anxiety. They did not report till the following summer of 1866, and in the meantime the States which had seceded were not allowed representation in Congress. The attitude of Congress offended the President, and in a speech to the populace in front of the presidential mansion, he denounced the Republican party which had elected him to office. Thenceforth he made constant war upon the legislative branch of the Government, and caused such Cabinet members to resign as could not agree with him. He refused to pass a bill which provided for the reservation of three million acres of public land in the South for occupation by former slaves, and also vetoed a bill designed to confer the right of citizenship upon the freedmen, and to provide means for protecting them in the right. But Congress passed this bill over the veto of the President. It also passed the Fourteenth Amendment over the President's veto. The Fourteenth Amendment declared that all persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens, and forbid any State to make or enforce any law which abridged the privileges of these citizens. In February, 1867, a bill was entered for the admission of Nebraska, which stipulated that Nebraska should never deny the right of voting to any person on account of his race or color. The President vetoed the bill, but Congress passed it over his veto.

On the 6th of February, 1867, a bill to provide efficient governments for the States in insurrection was read in the House. The States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, Florida, Texas and Arkansas were divided into five military districts, each under the government of a military officer, who should govern them by civil tribunals whenever he should decide them to be more appropriate than military commissions. The bill provided that these States should establish constitutions satisfactory to Congress, and not conflicting with the Constitution of the United States. The President vetoed this bill, but it was passed by Congress.

At this time Secretary Stanton was removed by the President from his position as Secretary of War. Stanton refused to resign, and Congress supported him in his refusal. For this and other reasons President Johnson was impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors. After a long trial, which closed on May 16, 1868, the vote for conviction was thirty-five and for acquittal nineteen. As it needed the vote of two-thirds of the Senators for conviction, the President was acquitted.

During Lincoln's administration West Virginia was formally ad-

mitted to the Union as a separate State. This was in 1863. In 1867 Nebraska was admitted as a State of the Union. The immense region called Alaska had also been purchased from the Russian Government,



VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY, LOOKING SOUTHEAST.

in 1867, for more than seven million dollars. Its area is about half a million square miles, and this brought the whole area to about three

million five hundred thousand square miles, instead of the original eight hundred thousand. There were now thirty-seven States and twelve Territories, with a population of more than thirty-eight million.

The year 1866 was marked by the laying of a successful and permanent Atlantic cable. A strong, flexible cable was shipped on board the *Great Eastern*, which, after a prosperous voyage, arrived at Heart's Content, Newfoundland. It then returned to the mid-Atlantic, where the end of the cable which had been laid in 1865 was grappled, and a splice was made. This line has never failed, and marine cables have increased rapidly since.

In 1867 the National Grange, for the promotion of the farming interests of the country, was organized at Washington. This order has now spread all over the United States, and though the enthusiasm which attended its birth has died out, it has done not a little toward elevating the condition of the farmer, increasing the value of his products, and putting him on a firmer business footing with the consumer.

The Union Pacific Railroad, which crosses nine mountain ranges and links the Atlantic with the Pacific, was completed on May 10, 1869, at Promontory Point, Utah. The last tie of laurel wood, with a plate of silver upon it, was laid, and the last spike, composed of iron, silver and gold, was driven in the presence of many onlookers. The telegraph wires were attached to the last rail, and the blows telegraphed to many parts of the continent the completion of the road. The total length of the road is two thousand miles. Its cost was one hundred and twelve million two hundred and fifty-nine thousand three hundred and sixty dollars.

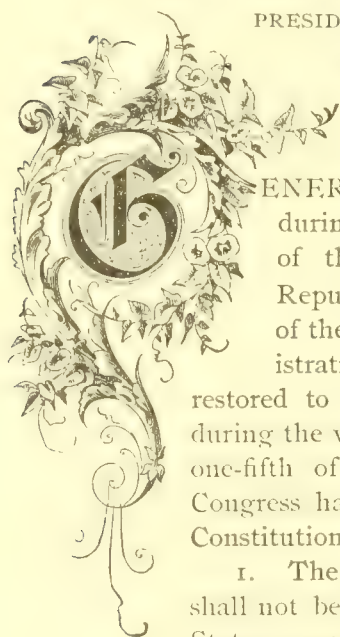
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Partridge's "Making of the American Nation."
 Loring's "History of Reconstruction."
 W. H. Bancroft's "Alaska."
 Field's "History of American Telegraph."
FICTION—A. W. Tourgee's "Hot Plowshares."
 A. W. Tourgee's "Bricks Without Straw."
 A. W. Tourgee's "A Fool's Errand."
 C. Reid's "Valerie Aylmer."
POETRY—Lowell's "Washers of the Shroud."
 Walt Whitman's "My Captain."

CHAPTER CIII.

A Hundred Years of Liberty.

ADMINISTRATION OF GRANT—THE KU-KLUX KLAN—THE CHICAGO
FIRE—THE CUSTER MASSACRE—THE PANIC OF 1873—THE
CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION—ADMINISTRATION OF
PRESIDENT HAYES—RAILROAD
RIOTS OF 1877.



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT, whose services during the war had so endeared him to the hearts of the American people, was elected by the Republican party, and inaugurated as President of the United States in 1869. During his administration all the seceded States became finally restored to the Union. The enormous debt incurred during the war was very greatly decreased. More than one-fifth of it (\$600,000,000) was paid. Meanwhile, Congress had passed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This amendment reads:

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.
2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

The South was in a fever of anxiety about what it termed "negro supremacy." It claimed that the freedom of speech and press had been overthrown; that the American capital was converted into a bastille, and that a system of spies and official espionage had been established, to which no constitutional monarchy of Europe would dare to resort. Matters in the South had been complicated by the fact that at the close of the war thousands of Northern men had settled there. These Northern settlers met with a hostile reception, and their interference in



THE MAID OF THE MIST GOING THROUGH THE WHEELPOW RATHS.



the government of the South aroused the wildest indignation. They were termed "Carpet-Baggers," for the reason that they usually stayed but a short time in the South, and, metaphorically speaking, carried their possessions in a carpet-bag. The more liberal men of all parties are willing to admit now that these "Carpet-Baggers" were often guilty of ill-timed and officious acts. It was largely their presence in the South which called into existence the terrible secret society known as the Ku-Klux Klan. In some places this society was known as the "Pale Faces," and in others, as the "Knights of White Camelia." These wished to frighten the ex-slaves, in order to keep them from taking part in the elections; to rid the country of "Carpet-Baggers," and to sustain, as far as might be, the former slave-holding power in the "irreconcilable South." This order prevailed in all parts of the Confederacy, and was so secret that no member knew who any of the others might be. When the men met they were always masked. This organization sent out armed men, who patrolled communities, intimidating men, and committing murder and other crimes. As the identity of the members could not be proved, they were neither caught nor tried. So great was the alarm caused by the Ku-Klux that the Governor of Tennessee, in 1868, called an extra session of the legislature, to provide measures of protection against the order. A committee reported that for six months, saying nothing of other outrages, the murders had averaged not less than one in each twenty-four hours. It reported that in fourteen counties of North Carolina, there had been eighteen murders and three hundred and fifteen whippings. In twenty-nine counties of Georgia, there were seventy-two murders and one hundred and twenty-six whippings. In twenty-six counties of Alabama, two hundred and fifteen murders and one hundred and sixteen other outrages, and in Louisiana, in 1868, there were more than one thousand murders. The particulars of this persecution by the Ku-Klux are as wild, romantic and terrible as any tale of feudal and uncivilized times; to re-admit the seceded States into the Union under such circumstances, was a delicate and a dangerous task. The chief requirement for re-admission was, that each of the States should ratify the Fifteenth Amendment. Congress now determined that the amendment should be enforced, and authorized the President to use the army to prevent violations of law, and make penal any interference, by fraud or force, with the right of full and free manhood suffrage. Federal supervisors were appointed to oversee elections in cities of over twenty thousand inhabitants. This continued for several years.

In 1871, the people of the Northwest suffered a great blow from the partial destruction by fire of Chicago, the commercial center and the chief port of that district. The fire broke out on the 8th of October, and originated from the explosion of a lamp kicked over by an angry cow. For two days it raged almost unchecked, and was sustained by a fierce wind. It spread over two thousand one hundred and twenty-four acres, and destroyed seventeen thousand four hundred and fifty buildings. The loss was almost one hundred and seventy-five million dollars, and ninety-eight thousand people were made homeless. At the same time a terrible fire devastated Northeastern Wisconsin. Here the fire was accompanied by a hurricane, and swept through forests, fields and villages, leaving nothing but charred earth in its track. Over one thousand lives were lost. The town of Peshtigo was entirely swept out of existence. Here the fire rushed upon them with a loud roar, apparently almost out of the sky, and without any warning. Six hundred lives were lost in this town alone. Throughout the northern part of Michigan there were similar experiences, and indeed the entire Northwest suffered from fires, any one of which would have been famous at another time, but which, in a year of general catastrophe, were thought little of. The season was one of unprecedented dryness, the air was hot and the wind high, and this accounted, no doubt, for the frequency of these disasters.

Meanwhile, in spite of all difficulties and drawbacks, the American nation had been rapidly progressing. Its triumphs of mechanical ingenuity were unequaled. Its literature, its science, its art, were beginning to win recognition. Its system of popular education was remarkable. It had been proved to the world that a republican government on a large scale was practicable, and that the people were as well able to defend their principles as a king to defend his. Even the constant arrival of thousands of emigrants unacquainted with republican ideas, and full of an inherited dislike for government, was not able to seriously hinder the onward sweep of improvement. It was several years later before these people became so numerous or their mistaken ideas so prominent as to cause concern.

In the autumn of 1872, President Grant was re-elected. Henry Wilson was chosen Vice-President, in the place of Schuyler Colfax. Shortly after Grant's second inauguration, in 1873, the Government became involved in troubles with the Modoc Indians. At a friendly conference, the Indians murdered General Canby and a clergyman, in April of 1873. Four of the leaders were hanged in the following

October for their treachery. But the insincerity was not all upon the side of the Indians, and the policy of the Government toward this unhappy race of people has always been vacillating and selfish. Late in June, 1876, General Custer and his command of three hundred men were attacked at Little Big Horn river, in Montana Territory, and destroyed. Only one man escaped to tell the particulars of the direful defeat. The terrible manner in which these men met their death, and the indignities which were committed upon their dead bodies, aroused the keenest horror, and the management of the Indians from that time on has been more severe.

Mention should be made of two great political parties which had been formed, and which, though neither of them have been in power or even near to power, have had much influence in political as well as moral matters. The Temperance party was organized in 1872, and consisted of a national combination of local temperance organizations, which had been in existence for many years. This received the name of the Prohibition Reform party, in 1876. It awakened much enthusiasm in the cause of temperance, and in the course of time Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Kansas and Iowa adopted prohibition principles, making it a punishable crime to sell liquor within the limits of the States. A number of other States are known as Local Option States, and have prohibitory districts. The second party mentioned is known as the Labor Reform National party. It grew out of the combinations of workingmen called 'Trades' Unions. How this party was weakened in later years by the movements of a body of men known as Anarchists, and too often confounded by unthinking persons with the men of the labor party, must be told in another chapter.

In 1873 occurred a great financial panic, which spread in the course of the year over the whole country. Firms in every part of the Union failed, and business for the time was almost paralyzed. The effect upon the laboring classes was most unfortunate. Everyone was afraid of losing money and locked it up, when it was most needed by the people. Mills were closed, great railroad enterprises suddenly abandoned, and speculation ceased. The great credit system was largely at fault for this commercial crash, and the business of the country was perilously speculative in its nature. It turned thousands of tramps upon the country; it ruined thousands of rich men, and, perhaps, among other things, it brought a few rich men to their senses, and showed them that honest industry is worth much more than a genius for speculation. It was four years before the country recovered from the results of this panic.

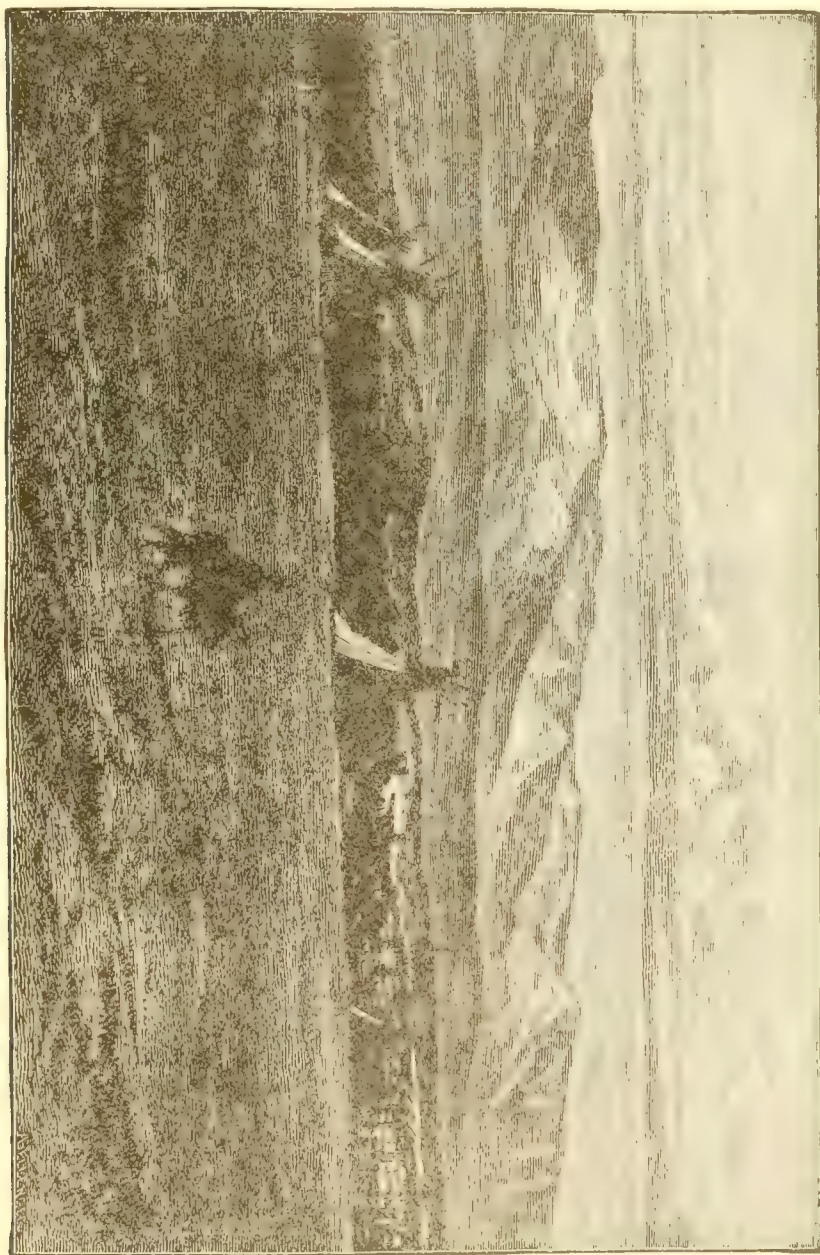
In this year Elisha Gray, of Chicago, invented the instrument which became the basis of the modern telephone. The adaptation of it to the human voice, in 1873, by Professor Bell, of Boston, completed the invention.

Grant's second administration was marked by some grave political scandals, among which was that of the Credit Mobilier. This was a corporation which placed a large amount of money in the Union Pacific Company, and induced many men of capital to embark in the enterprise, and to take stock both in the Union Pacific Company and in the Credit Mobilier Company. Mr. Oakes Ames was a leader in this enterprise, and he presented shares of stock to a considerable number of members of Congress. It was claimed that he did this for the purpose of keeping Congress friendly and favorable to the Pacific Railroad, and it occasioned much concern and indignation throughout the United States, for it was feared that bribery might become open and frequent in Congress, and the liberty of the people seriously endangered. The only punishment which Mr. Oakes Ames and his most culpable sympathizer, James Brooks, received, was the absolute condemnation of the House. Both gentlemen died within three months after these resolutions of condemnation were passed, broken in reputation and self-respect. Without doubt, however, bribery of one sort or another is frequent at Washington.

The Democratic party at about this time demanded investigations of the New York Custom House, the United States Treasury, the Navy Department and various other institutions, but comparatively little was proved against the Administration. In the South, matters became so grave that General Sheridan was sent to New Orleans to see that law and order was enforced there, and to oppose the movements of the White League. This league had constantly assaulted and disfranchised the blacks, so that it became necessary to protect the freedmen. Shortly after this was done the country became disturbed by another scandal. This was an extensive whisky ring, organized to control legislation so as to avoid revenue taxes. It consisted of an association of distillers, in collusion with Federal officers, and succeeded for a time in defrauding the Government of the tax on spirituous liquors. Following this came the impeachment of William W. Belknap, the Secretary of War. He was charged with selling an Indian trading post. Up to this time he had been much respected, and it was a great grief to the people that he should have been found guilty of treachery.

It is pleasant to turn from these dark political pages to the centennial

, celebration of the independence of the United States. There were festivals and meetings all over the United States, and a great inter-



DENVER TWENTY YEARS AGO.

national exhibition was held at Philadelphia in honor of the event.

Thirty-three nations were represented by their industries, and almost ten million people visited the exhibition, so that nearly four million dollars were received for admission alone. A great impulse was given to American industry, and the United States had much cause to be proud of its inventive skill, and some cause, to tell the truth, to be ashamed of its art work, which was poor, compared with that of the older nations. During the year 1876 Colorado was admitted into the Union as a State, making thirty-eight States and eleven territories.

The next presidential election was attended with much excitement. Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, were the presidential and vice-presidential candidates of the Republican party. Those of the Democratic party were Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. The votes of the States were very closely divided between these two candidates, and the decision depended upon the votes of two doubtful States. It was generally admitted that the Democrats had legally chosen one hundred and eighty-four electors and the Republicans one hundred and seventy-three, but the four votes of Florida and the eight votes of Louisiana were in doubt. If all of these were to be counted for Mr. Hayes he would have a majority of one. The Returning Boards of these two States declared that Republican electors had been chosen. These Boards were bodies of men appointed after the war by the laws of these States, and were authorized not only to count the votes actually cast, but to throw out the votes of neighborhoods where there had been violence or intimidation. The Republicans maintained that these Boards had exercised their power rightfully, but the Democrats claimed that they had unjustly thrown out a great many Democratic votes which should rightfully have been counted. The Republicans thought that the fraud and violence of the Democrats in some parts of these States had been so great as to justify the action of the Returning Boards. The question was a difficult one, and there was nothing in the Constitution to aid in its settlement. Throughout the country the excitement was great, and many feared that a civil war was at hand. Week after week passed by and at length the wiser men of both parties in Congress decided that the best plan was to appoint an Electoral Commission, to which all doubtful votes should be referred. Five Senators, five Representatives and five Justices of the Supreme Court composed this body, and it decided by a vote of eight to seven that the votes of Florida and Louisiana must be counted as the Returning Boards had reported them, because these Boards had been legally appointed by those particular States, and the other States could

not revise or reject their returns. This decision gave Hayes and Wheeler one hundred and eighty-five votes, and Tilden and Hendricks one hundred and eighty-four. Hayes and Wheeler were therefore declared to be elected, and were inaugurated on March 5, 1877, but during the whole of their administration there was a bitter spirit between the two parties, and the Democrats could not forget that the Electoral Commission had been composed of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, and that all of these men had voted precisely as their party principles had prompted them to do. Fortunately, Mr. Hayes was a man of peaceable and conciliatory disposition. Though not a brilliant man, he was ambitious to be a just one. Mr. Hayes began by making up his Cabinet from both parties, which was a very uncommon thing. It had long been the motto of the parties "to the victor belongs the spoils," and following up this motto the Presidents conferred the offices within their appointment upon those who had supported them, regardless of their ability or honesty of purpose. Mr. Hayes, therefore, gave offence. He withdrew all United States soldiers from the State Houses of any of the States which had belonged to the Confederacy, and prohibited the interference of United States troops with the elections in those States. Many of the people objected seriously to this, and especially to the withdrawal of troops from South Carolina, which of all the States of the South was the most difficult to control. But the President insisted that his principle was right, and that since South Carolina had been readmitted as a State, she could not be treated as conquered territory. The effect was indeed beneficial, and the States continued to grow more peaceful from that time on. Injustice, intimidation and contempt certainly exist still in the treatment of the colored people, but it is hoped that by another generation this will die out, and many negroes have taken the remedy into their own hands. During the summer of 1879 there was a great exodus of the negroes from the States of the South to those of the Northwest. The negroes were received kindly in Kansas and Indiana, and have therefore settled extensively in those States.

During the summer of 1877, our Government engaged in a war with the hitherto friendly Nez Percés Indians. These were subdued by our arms as usual, and made our enemies.

The Government and banks of the United States resumed specie payments on January 1, 1879. It was feared among business men that this might cause much embarrassment, but the change from paper money to silver and gold was accomplished with ease. During Hayes' administration there was a great agitation concerning the emigration of natives

of China into the United States. The workmen claimed that they lowered the price of American labor, and protested that they could not compete with them. The President vetoed the bill restricting their emigration, but the newspapers did not permit the subject to die out, and in 1888 the bill restricting emigration was passed.

It was during Hayes' administration that the agitation of the workmen began to have its serious effect. In July, 1877, there was a great convulsion among the railroad hands on the central roads of the United States. The beginning was on July 17th, when the brakemen and firemen on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad refused to work, and prevented others from working, because their wages had been reduced ten per cent. By the next day the entire road was in possession of the strikers. A call for aid was made upon the Government, to which President Hayes responded with a body of Federal troops and a proclamation to the rioters to disperse. At Pittsburg, there was a special intensity of feeling, and the excitement was great in Chicago. The Tradesmen's Union held a meeting and resolutions were passed demanding concessions from the companies. By the 20th, Pittsburg was completely in the power of the rioters, and fifteen hundred trains were stopped. At Baltimore, the Maryland regiments were ordered out, and as they were leaving their armory were met by a crowd of several thousand. These stoned the regiments until they were obliged to fire in self-defense. Several men were killed. On the 21st, the State militia of Pennsylvania arrived at Pittsburg and a terrible scene of riot and violence followed. The militia found their enemies so formidable that they took refuge in the railroad round-house. From here they fired upon the crowd. The mob had sacked the gun stores, and returned the fire with enthusiasm. By setting fire to some cars of petroleum they forced the militia to leave the round-house. The fire spread rapidly and the railroad property was soon in ruins. Throughout the 22d and 23d the disturbance continued.

Serious riots broke out in Philadelphia, and the excitement spread to Chicago, St. Louis and San Francisco. But before a fortnight was over order was restored. Some of the companies compromised with the strikers, and others ran their trains with new employees.

The following year was marked by a terrible plague in the South. Seven thousand deaths were caused in the months of August, September and October of 1878, by yellow fever. Whole villages were deserted by the panic which accompanied it, and the industries of the South, still young and uncertain, were almost crushed by the disaster.



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

During this year Thomas A. Edison brought the phonograph to the attention of the world. This remarkable instrument, which is now becoming of practical use, will repeat, after any interval of time, the words which have been spoken into it. The mechanical inventions in the United States within the last twenty-five years have been unprecedented for their number and their utility. The utilization of natural gas for heat and light, the heating of houses by steam, the common use of hydraulic power, the progress in mining, and the experiments in explosives, not to mention the improvements in looms and all sorts of practical machinery, are remarkable.

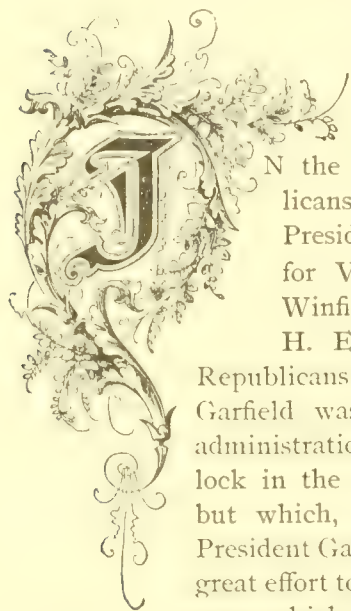
FOR FURTHER READING:

- HISTORY**—Andreas' "History of Chicago."
 Phelps' "Life and Public Services of U. S. Grant."
 Howard's "Life of Hayes."
FICTION—Mrs. Whitney's "A Summer in Leslie Goldthait's Life."
 J. G. Holland's "Arthur Bomucastle."
 O. W. Holmes' "Elsie Venner."
 H. W. Beecher's "Norwood."
 Mrs. Stowe's "Oldtown Folks."
 F. B. Aldrich's "Queen of Sheba."
 F. B. Aldrich's "Margery Daw."
 Mrs. St. John's "Bella."
POETRY—Whittier's "Centennial Hymn."
 E. Renaul's "Chicago."
 Longfellow's "Revenge of Rain-on-Face."

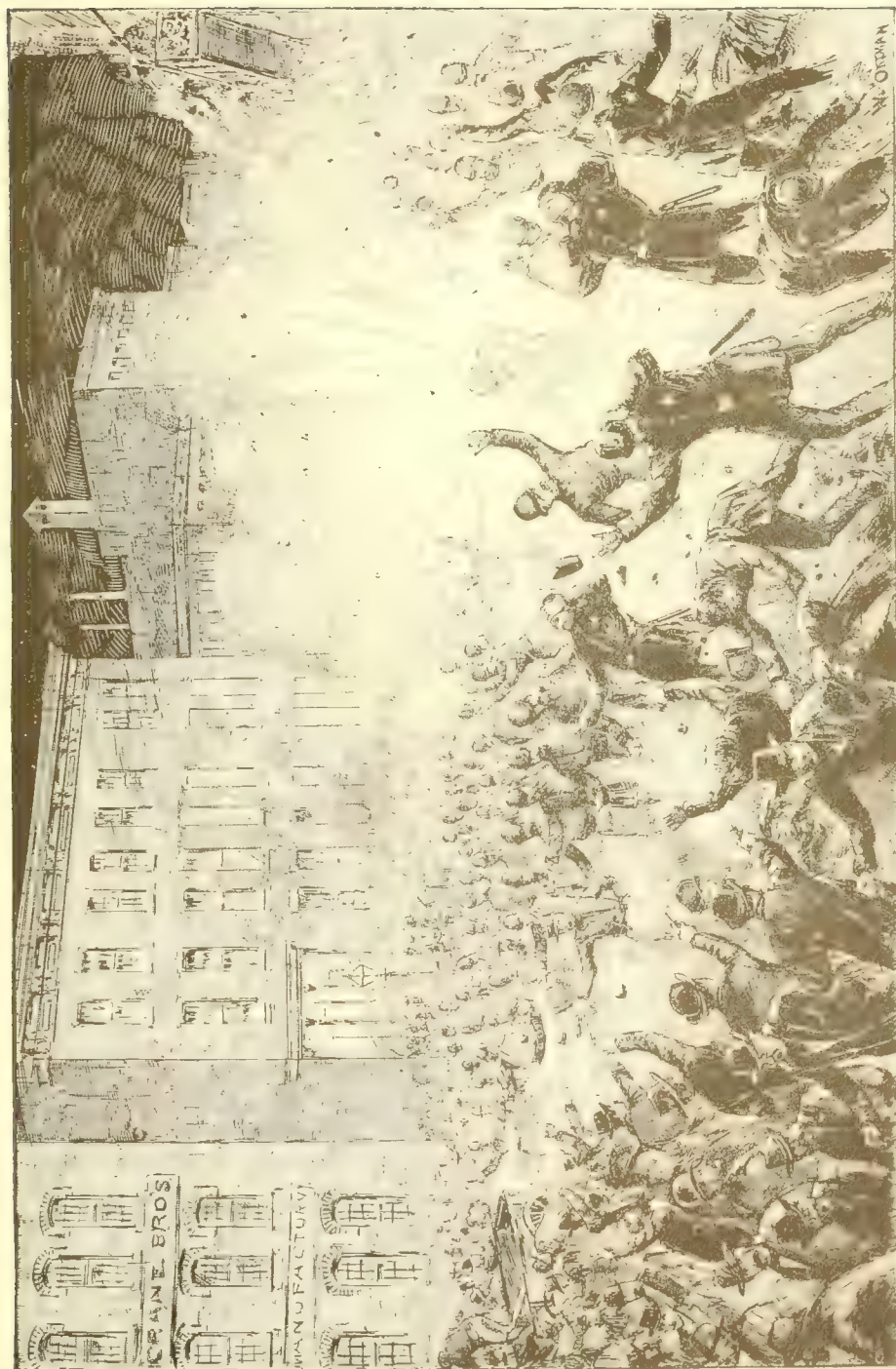
CHAPTER CIV.

The Old Haymarket.

ELECTION AND DEATH OF PRESIDENT JAMES A. GARFIELD—ADMINISTRATION OF ARTHUR—THE ANARCHISTS OF CHICAGO.



IN the National Convention of 1880, the Republicans nominated James A. Garfield, of Ohio, for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President. The Democrats nominated Winfield S. Hancock, of New York, and William H. English, of Indiana. At this election the Republicans won by a decided majority, and President Garfield was inaugurated March 4, 1881. Garfield's administration opened with what was known as a deadlock in the Senate, which was a mere matter of party, but which, at the time, caused no little discussion. President Garfield announced it as his intention to make a great effort to rid the United States of the shame of polygamy, which exists in Utah, and his best efforts would doubtless have been devoted to this end but for his untimely death. On July 2, 1881, while waiting for a train in the railway station at Washington, President Garfield was shot and mortally wounded by a half-insane creature, whose name deserves no place in history. The President was taken to the White House, where he lay between life and death for many weeks. He confessed to a great desire for being near the sea, and on September 6th, was taken to Elberon, New Jersey. Here, on the nineteenth of September, he died, mourned by the whole nation. His industrious, wholesome life, and the fact that he had risen from a poor boyhood, worked his way through college till he stood at the head of it, served faithfully in camp till he became a general, and maintained his position in Congress with so much dignity that he was chosen President, made him seem to the youth of America the typical



THE ANARCHIST EDGE INFECTION OF THE LOWER HAYMARKET SQUARE, CHICAGO, ON THE EVENING
OF MAY 4, 1886.

man of the Republic. He was mourned in Europe as well as in America, and when he died, the British court, as well as the friends of the President at Washington, went into mourning. His death was not the result of any conspiracy, nor of political hostility, but the act of one egotistical and half-insane man, who was angry at being refused an office. The murderer was tried, and hung on June 30, 1882. Meanwhile, Vice-President Arthur had succeeded to the presidency, taking the oath of office at New York, September 20, 1881, and again more formally, two days after, at Washington. No new States were added to the Union during Arthur's administration. The nation was prosperous and peaceful, and Arthur's inaugural address was notable by reason of its being the first one in twenty years that contained no reference to the Southern States as a distinct part of the nation. It was evident that the great sectional contest was drawing to an end, and all the bitterness of feeling which had attended it was disappearing.

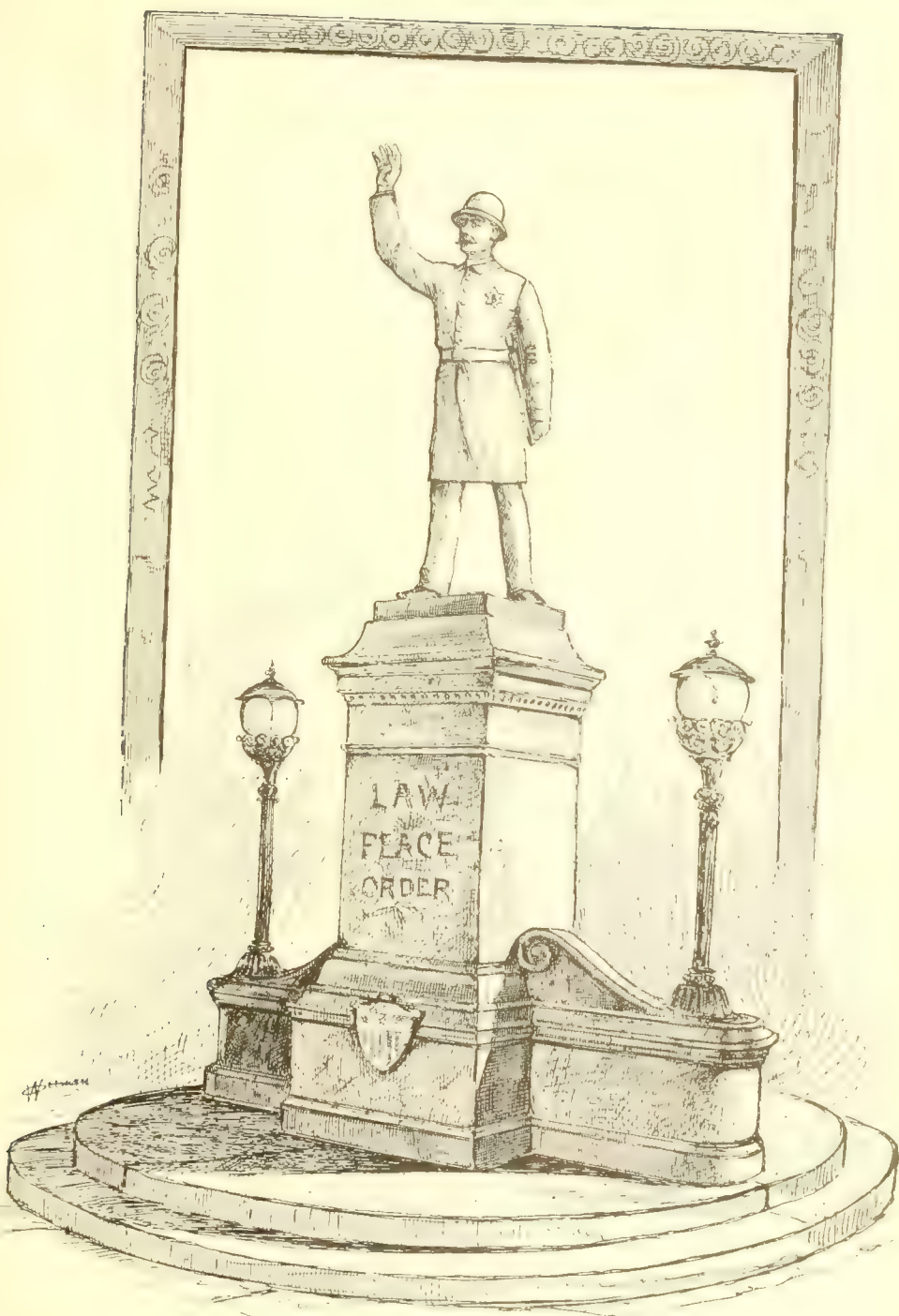
The history of a nation should not be made up of its wars and its disasters. By rights, the greater part of its pages should be devoted to those intervals of peace when education flourishes, industry increases, and the influence of home life is most felt. At such times one may, if he chooses, estimate rightly the comparative position of his nation, its advantages and disadvantages, and judge rightly its value to the world.

In 1879, as has been said, specie payment was resumed in the United States, and ever since that time the national currency has been at par value. Any one who possesses a paper dollar can receive a gold or silver dollar for it without difficulty. This placed commerce upon a more certain foundation. Industry has gradually increased, and we have begun to manufacture many articles which we formerly imported almost entirely from Europe. Watches, cotton, woolen, silk, the finest musical instruments, carriages, furniture, cutlery, railroad iron, carpets and decorative fabrics are among those industries which have been taken up at a comparatively recent time, and the products of which are sold, not only in America, but on the other side of the water. In other ways we are not doing as well as we once did. We no longer possess a navy of any sort whatever, and no foreign sea is ever decorated with the American flag. This has come largely from the fact that iron vessels have taken the place of wooden ones, and that England has greater advantages for building iron vessels than America possesses. As it is a law that a vessel must carry the flag of the country it is built in, the purchase of vessels will not remedy this deficiency.

Another great drawback in this country is the rapid growth of

monopoly. The telegraph, the railroads, oil, coal and many other necessities are governed by rich corporations, who are able to ask any price that they choose, and have the power to keep down all competition. A large class of men who follow the teachings of a modern economist and philosopher named Henry George, believe that all necessities of this sort should be owned and managed by the Government. They also believe that land should be public property as much as air or water. The great question of the country is at present, and must remain for many years, the adjustment of capital and labor. There has long been a cry from all parts of the country for co-operative work. A foolish and impassioned set of men, most of whom are emigrants from the monarchies of Europe, and known as Anarchists, are among those who have formed themselves into a party to combat monopoly and undue wealth.

On May 4, 1886, this discontent culminated in a terrible tragedy at the city of Chicago. An open-air meeting was held by the discontented party at the old Haymarket, on the West Side of the city. As the attitude of these men had been threatening for several weeks, a company of policemen were sent to preserve order. Their presence and their demeanor inflamed the wrath of some madman in the crowd, and a dynamite bomb was thrown into their midst, killing one policeman immediately and wounded sixty-seven others. The bomb was probably thrown by a German named Schnaubelt. This man fled, and was never captured. Seven policemen in all died, from the results of the riot. The city was seriously alarmed. There were rumors of a great conspiracy. It was whispered that a plot existed to burn the city to the ground. A raid was made on the office of the *Arbeiter Zeitung*, the organ of the Anarchists. Here dynamite bombs and infernal machines were found, as well as a large number of circulars on which there was an appeal to the workmen to arm themselves. It is said by the friends of the Anarchists that these circulars were not intended for distribution. They maintained that some ill-advised person had put that appeal upon the circulars without the knowledge of the men who were to speak at the Haymarket meeting which the circulars announced. It is said that Albert Parsons, one of the best known of the Anarchist leaders, refused to speak at the meeting unless other circulars were printed which did not contain that seditious injunction. These milder circulars had been printed and circulated, and those left in the office, it is said, were to be destroyed. But even when this point is conceded, it does not explain the presence of dynamite.



THE HAYMARKET MONUMENT.

Eight leaders of the Anarchists were arrested on charge of conspiracy and murder. They were August Spies, Albert R. Parsons, Samuel Fielden, Oscar Neebe, George Engel, Louis Ling, Michael Schwab and Adolph Fischer. It is maintained by the Anarchists that some of these men were not acquainted with each other; that they had never met until they were brought together in the court-room, and that obviously no conspiracy could have existed between them. On the other hand, it was maintained by many witnesses that each of these men had been heard making incendiary speeches, and evidence was brought before the grand jury which convinced that body that a conspiracy had actually existed for the destruction of the city. It is, however, admitted by all that the excitement of the time caused injustice to at least a part of these men. They were far from being equally guilty; they had not all acted in complicity, and they should have had separate trials. But the terrible sufferings of the policemen who were the victims of these misguided men worked upon the sympathies of the people, and interfered to some extent with the cause of justice. On August 3d, after a long trial, a verdict of guilty was rendered. Oscar Neebe was given fifteen years in the penitentiary. The rest of the men were sentenced to be hung. Before the ominous day of execution was reached, a petition, signed by the leading citizens of the city, begged a commutation of sentence for Fielden and Schwab, who were more temperate and judicious than their compatriots. As a consequence, these two men were condemned to life imprisonment. Before the day of execution, Louis Ling, the most impassioned and the youngest of the condemned Anarchists, committed suicide by setting fire to a dynamite cartridge in his mouth. It is held by some of the Anarchists that he did not commit suicide, but was murdered by the jail officials, who gave him a loaded cigar to smoke. He died within a few hours. A short time before his death a dynamite bomb was found in his cell. As all persons who visited the Anarchists were thoroughly searched before they were admitted to the jail, and as officers were present at every interview, the way in which that bomb came to be in his cell has always been an unsolved mystery. The manner in which it was found was suspicious. Ling was awakened from his sleep in the early morning, dragged hastily from his room, and confined in another cell. The jail officials then produced a bomb, which they claimed was found beneath his bed. Their word may be taken for what it was worth.

On the 11th of November, 1887, Parsons, Spies, Fischer and Engel were hung in the jail on the North Side of the city. They refused to

ask for pardon, and died heroically, sincerely believing themselves to be the martyrs of a righteous cause. That their efforts were misguided, futile and harmful, the judicious cannot doubt, but that they deserved death, may well be questioned. Socialism was incalculably injured by the agitation of the Anarchists, and the great question of the amelioration of the laboring man's lot was in no way solved, either by their lives or their deaths. They are remembered with execration by many, with unchecked devotion by a few, and with sincere regret by the majority. With the exception of Parsons, they were not Americans, and they brought to this country the hatred of government which they had acquired in Europe. Furthermore, the ruling political party of Chicago was Irish, the police force was composed almost entirely of Irishmen, and a bitterness of feeling existed between this race and the Germans in the cosmopolitan city of the tragedy. The Anarchists were Germans. Both the policemen and the Anarchists went to lengths, which were prompted by race hatred. The affair was but in a very small degree American, but the movement was not an unadulterated injury to America, for it inspired her broader-minded people with a judicious pity as well as a greater caution. Such men realized that the State should not alone cure diseases, but should try to prevent them, and they admitted to themselves that had these enthusiastic and impassioned men been checked at the proper point, or guided into the right channels, they might have been saved from themselves. That they were not altogether bad is proven by the fact that a man of clear judgment like William Dean Howells, one of the greatest of American writers, chooses to publicly and respectfully observe the anniversary of their deaths.

FOR FURTHER READING:

- FICTION—R. Edwards' "Twice Defeated."
 G. W. Curtis' "Trumps."
 "The Bread Winners." Anon.
 Mrs. Burnet's "Through One Administration."
 R. H. Newell's "Avery Glibbun."
 Bayard Taylor's "John Godfrey's Fortune."
 R. B. Kimball's "Henry Powers, Banker."
 R. B. Kimball's "Undercurrent of Wall Street."
 POETRY—D. Bethune Duffield's "A Dunge"
 N. P. Willis' Poems.
 George Arnold's Poems.
 O. W. Holmes' Poems.
 T. B. Aldrich's Poems.

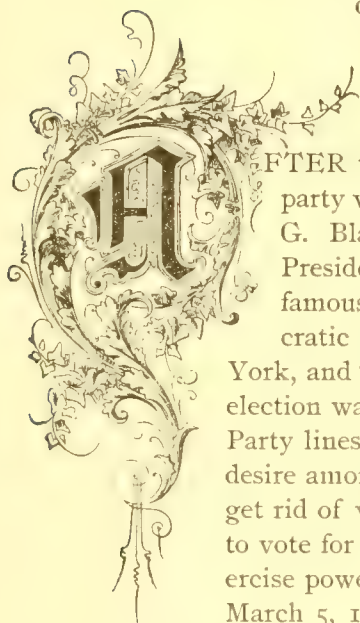


GROVER CLEVELAND.

CHAPTER CV.

Civil-Service Reform.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S ADMINISTRATION—CIVIL SERVICE REFORM
AND PENSION BILLS—MANY NOTED UNION GENERALS PASS
AWAY—DEATH OF GENERAL GRANT—PROMI-
NENT EVENTS OF FOUR YEARS
OF DEMOCRATIC
POWER.



AFTER twenty-four years of power, the Republican party was defeated in the election of 1884. James G. Blaine, of Maine, was their candidate for President, and John A. Logan, of Illinois, the famous general, for Vice-President. The Democratic nominees were Grover Cleveland, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. This election was marked by a growing spirit of liberality. Party lines disappeared to an extent, and there was a desire among the more honest men of the nation to get rid of what was known as machine politics, and to vote for the man who seemed most worthy to exercise power. President Cleveland was inaugurated March 5, 1885, with Mr. Hendricks as Vice-President, who, however, died November 28, 1885. After the

death of Vice-President Hendricks, a law was passed by Congress, providing that in case of the death of both President and Vice-President, the Secretary of State should be the successor to the presidency. A law had been previously passed, known as the Civil Service Act, under which the appointments to certain offices should thenceforth be made by competitive examination. The object of this law was to do away with the spoils system, to assure greater permanency, and to prevent the selection of politicians in the place of reliable and educated persons.

President Cleveland was born at Caldwell, New Jersey, March 18, 1837. Three years later he was taken to Fayetteville, near Syracuse, New York, where his father, who was a Presbyterian minister, received a salary of one thousand dollars. The boy, Grover Cleveland, was given a common school education, and as soon as he was old enough, became a clerk in a village store. In 1853, the father died at Holland Patent, New York, and his son was thrown upon his own resources. He went to New York City, and became a teacher of the blind in an institution where his brother held a position. A year later he started West, and meeting an uncle at Buffalo, settled there. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1859. In 1869 he was elected sheriff of Erie County, and in 1881 he became mayor of Buffalo. In 1882 he was elected Governor of New York by a sweeping majority, unparalleled in the history of American elections. While he still held office, in July, 1884, he was called by the Democratic National Convention to be the standard-bearer in the presidential contest.

After the inauguration, President Cleveland's first duty was to announce his Cabinet, and the day he took his oath of office he sent the following nominations to the Senate: Secretary of State, Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; Secretary of the Treasury, Daniel Manning, of New York; Secretary of the Interior, Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi; Secretary of War, William C. Endicott, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Navy, William C. Whitney, of New York; Postmaster-General, William F. Vilas, of Wisconsin; Attorney-General, Augustus H. Garland, of Arkansas. Before the close of the Administration there were several changes in the Cabinet, as it was first framed. Charles F. Fairchild succeeded Daniel Manning as Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Manning having resigned on account of ill health. Lucius Q. C. Lamar was appointed to the Supreme Bench, and William F. Vilas became Secretary of the Interior, Don M. Dickinson taking his place as Postmaster-General.

The most difficult question that confronted President Cleveland was the distribution of official patronage. It had long been the custom of the Government to give all appointive offices to its own partisans. This usage, well established since the time of President Jackson, was the origin and cause of much abuse of office in the various departments of the Government. Extreme party men maintained the principle, "To the victors belong the spoils." The best politicians advocated civil-service reform, and worked against the old practice of appointing men for party service, and not for personal ability. In the evenly con-

tested elections of 1880 and 1884, it became necessary for both parties to conciliate civil-service reformers. It was they who threw their influence for Cleveland in the hotly contested election, and he went into office pledged to carry out the views of those who, trusting the sincerity of his belief in civil-service reform, had raised him to power. No Chief Magistrate ever had more confusing questions to decide, or a more difficult work to take up. In his perplexing position, President Cleveland showed rare judgment. His sturdy strength of character and natural independence of spirit carried him through many a trying ordeal, and his most bitter political opponents could not impugn his honesty, integrity and common sense.

During President Cleveland's administration it was rather strange that there should be a revival of interest in regard to the civil war, which did not tend to allay sectional feeling between the North and the South. Many of the leading participants in the war contributed personal reminiscences of the battles in which they fought, and although such authentic accounts of the great civil struggle are invaluable from an historical standpoint, they naturally recalled painful memories and delayed a perfect amalgamation between former opponents. In 1875, General William T. Sherman had published a book containing his memories of the war, and Alexander H. Stevens, late Vice-President of the Confederacy, had told the story from the other side in a volume called "War Between the States." In 1884 General Grant published a series of articles in the *Century Magazine*, and the wide interest they awakened induced him to prepare his now famous "Memoirs."

During President Cleveland's administration many pension bills were brought before Congress. These bills occasioned bitter controversies and helped to foster sectional prejudices. The President had the courage to veto the bills that he considered unworthy or tending toward an extravagant or unnecessary expenditure of the public funds. But while he vetoed many pension claims, he also signed a great number. In 1884, when he entered office, there were thirty-four thousand one hundred and ninety-two pension claims allowed, and in 1888 the number had been nearly doubled, over sixty thousand names appearing on the pension list. Notwithstanding these figures, the fact that President Cleveland vetoed various pension bills that had passed Congress, caused the Grand Army men to look with disfavor upon his re-election, and their influence was one of the causes of his defeat in the campaign of 1888.

While volumes were being written about the war, many of its heroes passed away. In a single year, several Union generals died. At the beginning of the summer of 1885, the public announcement that General Grant was stricken with a fatal malady saddened the entire nation. For many months the hero of Vicksburg and Appomattox battled bravely with disease until, on the 23d of July, he sank peacefully to rest at the summer cottage on Mt. McGregor. The brave old man, after traveling around the world and being entertained by half the kings of earth, died in comparative poverty, and, what was worse, with a cloud hanging over his name. This, however, was cleared away, and the American people honored and loved him at the end as a man true and faithful, whose only crime was that he believed others to be as honest as himself and trusted too honestly and completely. That he might not leave his wife in poverty, he worked constantly upon his memoirs through the long, dreadful months when he was suffering intense agony from the cancer in his throat which eventually caused his death. His last days were cheered by the restored confidence of his countrymen. He died, in the consciousness that his book would insure a life-long competence to his family and that his name would be preserved with those of Washington and Lincoln. His funeral ceremonies were the most solemn and impressive ever witnessed in the United States, and, on April 8th, the body of the greatest American soldier was interred, with great military pomp, at Riverside Park, near New York City.

Less than three months later, General George B. McClellan died. General McClellan was the first commander of the Army of the Potomac and at one time general-in-chief of the army. He was subsequently Democratic candidate for President, and later Governor of New York.

General Winfield S. Hancock, senior Major-General of the United States Army, was the next to be called away. In 1880, he was the Democratic candidate for President, and was defeated by President Garfield.

Before the close of 1886, another Union commander died. Late in December, Major-General John A. Logan, United States Senator from Illinois, became ill at his home, Calumet Place, in Washington City. He had long been a sufferer from rheumatism, brought on by exposure in the early campaigns of the war. Few men did more than General Logan to strengthen the Union sentiment in the wavering border States. Without military training, he rose rapidly in the army and became the great volunteer general of the war. When the rebellion broke out, he resigned his seat in Congress and joined the Union army. In 1884,

after being defeated in his candidacy for Vice-President upon the Republican ticket, he resumed his duties in the United States Senate. Mrs. Logan, a woman of rare intellectual power, was always a wise counselor and a noble companion to her illustrious husband, and she will always occupy a high place in the regard of the American people.

On November 25, 1885, Thomas A. Hendricks, the Vice-President, was stricken with paralysis and died suddenly at Indianapolis. He was buried at the beautiful Crown Hill Cemetery, near that city.

A little later, two other distinguished Democratic leaders joined "the great majority." On February 12, 1886, Horatio Seymour died at his home in Utica, New York. He had reached the ripe age of seventy-six, and his long life had been one of great activity. In 1868, he was the Democratic candidate for President against General Grant. Samuel J. Tilden, the most distinguished man in Democratic politics, died at his home, called Greystone, near Yonkers, New York, August 4, 1886. He was born February 14, 1814, and, although in his seventy-third year at the time of his death, his intellectual force was unabated and his faculties unimpaired. He faithfully served his party for more than forty years and held many places of public trust. In 1876, he was nominated for President and polled a majority of the popular votes, although he failed to receive a majority from the Electoral College. After his candidacy for President, Mr. Tilden retired from public life, but he continued to be a guiding spirit in his party until his death.

In April, 1884, Cincinnati was the scene of terrible riots, which grew out of distrust of the courts. A murderer was not, according to the judgment of the people, dealt with severely enough, and the "laws' delays" had become so frequent that the people protested. Their protest took the form of a riot, the only results of which were disaster. Many were killed by the militia, the court house was burned, many thousand dollars' worth of public property was destroyed, the city kept under first mob and then martial rule for several days—and all to no end.

August and September of 1886 saw the destruction of the beautiful city of Charleston by earthquake. A series of shocks, extending over three days, devastated the city. Hundreds of people were killed, and those who escaped death were rendered homeless. Like Chicago, however, the city rapidly rose out of its ruins.

The summer of 1888 saw a return of the epidemic of yellow fever in the South. Thousands of people died, but the percentage of death was not so great among those attacked by the disease as it had formerly

been. The relief of the sufferers, both in the Charleston catastrophe and in the plague-stricken portions of the South, was prompt and cordial, and came from all parts of the United States. The generosity of the North upon these occasions did much to dissipate the bitterness between the sections.

In March, 1887, the country sustained a great loss in the death of Henry Ward Beecher, the orator, writer and philanthropist. He was taken away from a life that was still busy, notwithstanding increasing years and constantly widening fields of labor. No man did more than he to broaden popular ideas and teach liberality of thought. His work as a moral reformer and political instructor was even more prominent than as a preacher and theological thinker. Living in a critical period of American history, he threw himself into the anti-slavery conflict and took first rank on a platform that abounded with orators. No subject ever evoked more brilliant and forcible oratory than the slavery question, and no single voice did more than Mr. Beecher's to arouse the North against the encroachments of slave power. Against every compromise measure, he protested in language that was most eloquent and indignant, yet in his indignation he never lost his moral composure and self-restraint. By far the most remarkable of his political addresses were those delivered by him in Great Britain in 1863. He spoke in Manchester, Glasgow, Liverpool and London, and each address was prepared with special reference to the audience that would hear it. The greatest danger to the national cause in our civil war was from the intervention of European powers. England was especially feared. To these four addresses, more than any other one cause, America is indebted for the subsequent sympathy of the common people of England. Mr. Beecher took an active part in several presidential campaigns. At the time of President Lincoln's second candidacy, he made a series of brilliant political speeches, and he exerted a powerful influence in securing the election of President Cleveland. Born in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 24, 1813, Henry Ward Beecher's early education was of the severe New England type. He graduated from Amherst, in 1834. In 1837, he began his ministry in the small town of Lawrenceburg, Indiana. In 1839, he took charge of the Presbyterian Church at Indianapolis, and in 1847 accepted a call to the Plymouth Congregational Church, of Brooklyn, New York. It was with Plymouth Church that his name was henceforth inseparably connected, and during his ministry of forty years in its pulpit was a powerful molder of public opinion. While laboring with exceptional vigor in completing his

long-delayed "Life of Christ," which he purposed to follow with an autobiography, Mr. Beecher was suddenly stricken with apoplexy, and after lingering for a few days in an unconscious condition, passed away on the morning of March 8th. His death produced wide-spread sorrow throughout the American nation. In pulpits representing every school of thought, sermons on his career and character were preached, and in all sorts of organizations, religious and secular, resolutions to his memory were passed.

One of the most noted pieces of legislation during President Cleveland's administration was the Inter-State Commerce Law. The bill was introduced before the Forty-ninth Congress and attracted much attention, as it was intended to benefit the public by reducing railway fares and freight charges. After a long fight in Congress, during which time the bill was several times altered, it finally became a law. The bill provided for uniform freight and passenger rates upon all railroads throughout the United States.

President Cleveland had the satisfaction of knowing that four great States were admitted to the Union immediately preceding the close of his administration. This was an unusual number to be added under one President. These States were North and South Dakota, Montana and Washington. Dakota was entitled to admission some time before, but unworthy political motives prevented it from claiming its right place as a State.

President Cleveland's administration was notable from a social point of view. The inauguration of a Democratic President for the first time in a quarter of a century naturally created great enthusiasm. The ceremonies were impressive, and the event was celebrated with much pomp, although the man who assumed the Chief Magistrate's chair was one of the most unostentatious of men.

President Cleveland being unmarried, his youngest sister, Miss Rose Elizabeth Cleveland, became the hostess of the White House. A woman of progressive ideas, intellectual and thoughtful, she immediately made a pleasant impression upon the public. When her father died, she was a child eleven years old, and the care of her education devolved upon her mother. She was naturally studious, and early gave evidence of a strong and original mind. After graduating from a prominent seminary she returned to it as a teacher. Later, she became principal of the Collegiate Institute, at Lafayette, Indiana. Her health becoming impaired, she withdrew from active school work and became

a lecturer upon historical subjects in several large seminaries. She made her home at Holland Patent, New York, and at the death of her mother she continued to live at the old home until she was summoned away from her books to do the honors of the White House, where she presided with tact and dignity until the marriage of her brother. Miss Cleveland had become known as a writer of essays and literary criticisms, and while residing at the White House she found time to publish a book which met with great success.

In May, 1886, the approaching marriage of the President was announced, and the prospect of a wedding at the White House piqued the public interest. The bride-elect, Miss Frances Folsom, had been in Europe for some time and she was almost unknown in Washington, where she was soon to be the center of official social life. She was born in Buffalo, New York, and was the only daughter of Oscar Folsom, a prominent lawyer of that city. In 1870, Mr. Folsom became a partner of Mr. Cleveland in the practice of law, and a strong friendship sprang up between the two lawyers. Death soon severed this friendship, however, for in July, 1875, Mr. Folsom was thrown from a carriage and killed. Mrs. Folsom immediately gave up her home in Buffalo and removed to Medina, where she devoted herself to the education of her daughter, who was later sent to Wells College, Aurora. At school and college, the future wife of the highest official in the land was distinguished for her studious habits and bright mind, and she graduated from Wells College with high honors. Mr. Cleveland never lost sight of his partner's wife and daughter, and, during her school days, the young girl received many tokens of his friendly regard.

On the evening of June 2, 1886, President Cleveland and Miss Frances Folsom were married. The ceremony was performed in the Blue Room of the White House, the Reverend Byron Sunderland, D.D., officiating, assisted by the Reverend William Cleveland. As the marriage ceremony was performed, a salute of cannon was fired from the navy yard, and all the bells of the city churches rang greetings. On June 15th, the President and Mrs. Cleveland held an official reception, and the winsome manners of the new lady of the White House won every heart. Three days later another reception was held at which not less than ten thousand people crowded to meet Mrs. Cleveland, who wore her bridal gown and had the Blue Room decorated with flowers, just as it had been on the evening of the wedding.

Although only twenty-two years old and but a short time out of school when she became the first lady of the land, Mrs. Cleveland main-

tained the dignity of her exalted position with such tact and discretion that no word of criticism was ever passed upon her. Beautiful, gentle and kind, she endeared herself to the people. Highly accomplished, unaffected in manner and fascinating in address, she was everywhere loved and honored. In 1887, the President and Mrs. Cleveland made a tour through the country, going as far north as St. Paul, Minnesota, and as far south as Montgomery, Alabama. They were welcomed everywhere with great enthusiasm, the cities vying with one another in the preparations for their entertainment.

In the National Democratic Convention of 1888, President Cleveland was unanimously renominated, but he was defeated in the election by the Republican candidate, General Benjamin F. Harrison, of Indiana. The reasons for Republican success have been studied with much curiosity, and statesmen have had cause to remember the prophecy of General John A. Logan. He said that the election of 1888 would result in Republican triumph, for the reason that the children born after the close of the War of Secession would become of age and that they would be Republicans by heredity.

After the inauguration of President Harrison, Mr. Cleveland resumed the practice of law, associating himself with a prominent firm in New York City. As President of the United States, he left an honorable record. He was an indefatigable worker, spending many hours every day at his desk. His administration was noted for the business-like methods that he employed. An ardent advocate of tariff reform, he devoted much space in his annual messages to the subject.

FOR FURTHER READING:

FICTION—E. Eggleston's "The Hoosier Schoolmaster."

E. Eggleston's "The Circuit Rider."

E. Eggleston's "Roxy."

F. Winthrop's "John Brent."

J. W. DeForrest's "Overland."

Rattlehead's "Arkansas Doctor."

Bret Harte's "Luck of Roaring Camp."

Bayard Taylor's "Hannah Thurston."

Mrs. H. W. Bucher's "From Dawn to Daylight."

Huntington's "Alban."

F. W. Shelton's "The Rector of St. Bardolph's."

L. M. Childs' "A Romance of the Republic."

Mark Twain's "The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County."

C. E. Whitehead's "Wild Sports in the South."

POETRY—Lowell's Poems.

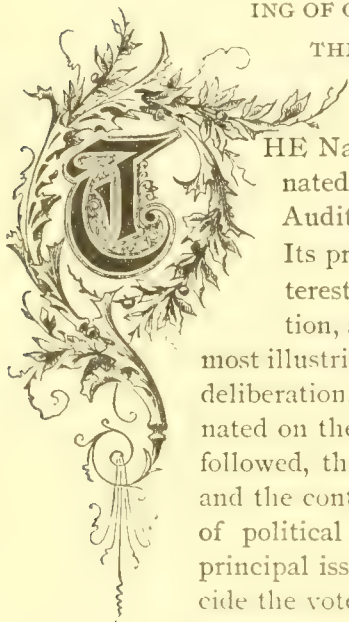
Bayard Taylor's Poems.

Bret Harte's Poems.

CHAPTER CVI.

President Harrison's Inauguration.

THE MEMBERS OF THE CABINET AND THE FOREIGN MINISTERS—THE
CELEBRATION OF THE CENTENNIAL ANNIVERSARY OF
WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION—THE OPEN-
ING OF OKLAHOMA TERRITORY—
THE SAMOAN DISASTER.



THE National Republican Convention, which nominated President Harrison, met in the great Auditorium building at Chicago, June 19, 1888. Its proceedings were watched with wide-spread interest, as there were many candidates for nomination, and the delegates representing them were the most illustrious men of the nation. After several days of deliberation, Benjamin Harrison was unanimously nominated on the eighth ballot. During the campaign which followed, there was less party bitterness than formerly, and the contest was not so personal as in previous times of political excitement. The tariff question was the principal issue. Protection and free trade were to decide the vote of the people. During his administration, President Cleveland had been outspoken in his free-trade principles, and the Democratic platform advocated a reduction of the tariff, while the Republicans clung to their belief in the efficiency of protection. Among the Republicans there were many veterans who had voted for Benjamin Harrison's grandfather. "Tippecanoe" clubs were formed and the log cabin appeared upon campaign banners. In the political processions many aged men marched and shouted for the descendant of their former candidate.

On March 4, 1889, President Harrison and Vice-President Morton were given the oath of office. The city of Washington was gayly decorated, and thousands of people assembled to witness the inauguration ceremonies. President Harrison delivered his inaugural address from



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

the portico of the Capitol, where Chief Justice Fuller had administered the oath of office. The day was unfortunately rainy and unpleasant; but the crowd, which was one of the largest ever gathered in Washington, listened with respectful attention. The inaugural address of President Harrison was a modest, thoughtful, well-written and dignified document. It was characterized by a patriotic sentiment of Unionism. It was of moderate length, and afforded ample opportunity to touch upon the questions of conspicuous national importance. The introduction of the message was suggested naturally by the political sentiments associated with the centennial of the nation's existence, for it was just one hundred years after the framing of the Constitution of the United States. The protective system was touched upon. President Harrison indorsed protection, and looked hopefully to its continuance. In the course of the address, the subject of monopolies was mentioned. President Harrison uttered a warning against corporations violating the rights of the people. He suggested an amendment to the naturalization laws—an amendment that would insure a closer scrutiny of the characters of those who come here, and which would exclude those who are likely to become a burden upon public charity. He outlined a firm and dignified policy.

A great ball, at which twelve thousand people were present, was given in the immense Pension building on the evening of the inauguration day. The preparations for the ball were elaborate, and the presidential party met with an enthusiastic welcome.

Benjamin Harrison, the twenty-third President of the United States, was born at North Bend, Hamilton county, Ohio, August 20, 1833. He studied at home until 1841, when he was sent to Farmer's College, near Cincinnati. His boyhood was not unlike that of other boys reared upon a farm, and was quite uneventful. At fifteen, he entered Miami University, at Oxford, Ohio, and was graduated from that institution, three years later. While at college, he became engaged to Miss Caroline W. Scott, a daughter of Dr. John Scott, who was principal of an academy for young ladies. After leaving college, he immediately studied law, and before he had quite finished his legal course he was married, on the 25th of October, 1853. In March, 1854, he settled in Indianapolis, and there began a brave struggle with the world. Mr. Harrison was not burdened with riches, and he and his young wife began life in the simplest manner. At first, business was slow in coming, and when appointed crier of the Federal Court, the young lawyer gladly accepted the humble office with its slight remuneration of two dollars

and a half a day. In 1860, he was a candidate before the Republican convention for Reporter of the Supreme Court of the State, and obtained the office to which he was afterward repeatedly re-elected.

When the rumors of civil war reached him, Mr. Harrison was anxious to be one of the first volunteers. Remembering his wife and young children, he hesitated. President Lincoln having issued a proclamation calling for troops, the Governor of Indiana found difficulty in filling the quota due from his State. The grandson of General William Henry Harrison could hesitate no longer. He immediately raised a regiment. While it was drilling, he was commissioned second lieutenant. When the regiment joined the army, its second lieutenant became the colonel of the Seventieth Regiment of Indiana Volunteers. Colonel Harrison proved to be a brave soldier, and when he was discharged from the army in June, 1865, he had risen to the rank of brigadier-general. He was the hero of Peach Tree Creek, and was brevetted for his gallant acts upon the field.

In 1876 many influential Republicans in the State insisted that General Harrison should allow his name to be placed on the ticket for Governor. He declined the honor, but was nevertheless nominated. The result of the election was unfavorable to him, although he ran ahead of his ticket and was defeated by a small majority. Two years later he was called upon to preside over the State Convention, and in 1880 he was chairman of the Indiana delegation at the National Convention. In 1884, he again represented his State at the National Convention which met in Chicago.

He was elected to the United States Senate in 1880, and served until 1886, when he resumed the practice of law in Indianapolis. As a lawyer, General Harrison had many natural gifts. He was quick of apprehension and broad of judgment. He was naturally analytical and logical, a patient student and a deep thinker. In private life, he was much esteemed by all who knew him. Modest and unassuming in manner, he still showed marked individuality and strong character. As a genial friend, a good citizen and a brilliant lawyer, he was highly honored in his native State, and his record in the United States Senate gave him a national reputation for unswerving loyalty to the interests of the people whom he represented.

Levi P. Morton, the Vice-President, was born at Sherman, Vermont, May 10, 1824. When very young he entered mercantile life, and soon became a partner in the Boston firm with which he was engaged. He removed to New York, four years later, continuing as

a merchant until 1863, when he founded the banking house of Morton, Bliss & Co. At the same time he established a branch in London under the firm name of Morton, Rose & Co., and this firm acted as the financial agents of the United States Government from 1873 to 1884. In 1878, Mr. Morton was appointed Honorary Commissioner to the Paris Exposition, and the same year was elected to Congress, where he served for two terms. President Garfield tendered him the office of Secretary of the Navy, which he declined, preferring to accept the appointment of Minister to France. After the expiration of his term as foreign minister, Mr. Morton held no public office until elected Vice-President of the United States.

On March 5th, the day after the inauguration, President Harrison sent the names of his Cabinet to the Senate for confirmation. They were: For Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, of Maine; Secretary of the Treasury, William Windom, of Minnesota; Secretary of War, Redfield Proctor, of Vermont; Secretary of the Navy, Benjamin F. Tracy, of New York; Secretary of the Interior, John W. Noble, of Missouri; Secretary of Agriculture, Jeremiah Rusk, of Wisconsin; Postmaster-General, John Wanamaker, of Pennsylvania; Attorney-General, William Henry Harrison Miller, of Indiana.

The nominees were promptly confirmed by the Senate, as there could be no objection to any of them on the ground of incompetency or personal unfitness. The new Cabinet was regarded by the country most favorably. While it contained several men who had no record in public life, it had no member who had not had large experience of either a political or business nature.

James Gillespie Blaine, Secretary of State, was born January 31, 1830, in Washington County, Pennsylvania. In 1847 he graduated at Washington College. He taught school for two years at Georgetown, Kentucky, in the meantime studying law. He was admitted to the bar in Pennsylvania, but never practiced. In 1853 he located in Maine, and assumed the editorship and control of the *Kennebec Journal*. Upon the organization of the Republican party, he took an active part in politics, and soon became the acknowledged leader of the Republican party in his State. In 1858, he was elected to the legislature, where he served four years, the last two as Speaker of the House. In 1862, he was elected to Congress, and at once assumed the lead in national politics. In 1869, he was chosen Speaker of the House, which office he held until the Democrats assumed control of Congress in 1876. In the same year, he was one of the principal candidates for the presidential nomination, but

was beaten, his opponents uniting on Governor Hayes, of Ohio. In July, 1876, he was appointed Senator from Maine by the Governor of the State. In 1880, he was again a prominent candidate for the presidential nomination, but General Garfield was finally selected as a compromise candidate. In 1884, he was nominated for the presidency, but was defeated by President Cleveland. No man in the country ever had more loyal political adherents than James G. Blaine, and in the convention of 1888 his name was again mentioned for nomination. Several delegations at first refused to consider any other name but his. Mr. Blaine was traveling in Europe at the time, and when he became aware of the indecision of the convention he had his name withdrawn, and President Harrison was nominated.

William Windom, Secretary of the Treasury, was born in Ohio, in 1827. He practiced law for several years in his native State, and in 1855 he removed to Minnesota. During the ten years from 1858 to 1868, he was a member of the House of Representatives at Washington. He was appointed United States Senator to fill a vacancy in 1870, and the following year was elected for a full term. In 1876, he was re-elected, and was Senator when President Garfield appointed him Secretary of the Treasury in 1881. He served but a short time, when President Garfield was killed. In 1883, he was a candidate for re-election to the Senate, but was defeated.

Redfield Proctor, of Vermont, Secretary of War, was born in 1831. In early life he began the study of law, but closed his books to go to the war. His first service was as quartermaster of the Third Regiment of Vermont. He subsequently was made major of the Fifth Vermont, and finally colonel of the Fifteenth. His health became impaired, and after serving at Gettysburg, where his regiment acted as train guard, he returned home and engaged in farming. He turned his attention to politics in a small way, serving several times in the State Legislature. In 1878, he was nominated for Governor and elected. From the time of his retirement from that office, he maintained an active interest in political affairs, and has been regarded as one of the party leaders of the State.

John W. Noble, Secretary of the Interior, was born at Lancaster, Ohio, in 1830. His father, John Noble, was a colonel of the United States army in the War of 1812. Secretary Noble was sent to college at Oxford, Ohio, and there formed the acquaintance of President Harrison, who was a student at the same time. From Oxford he was sent to Yale, where he graduated with high honors; he afterwards studied

law and practiced for two years. In 1856, he removed to St. Louis. He opened a law office there, but the following year removed to Keokuk, Iowa, where he practiced law until the war broke out. He enlisted in the Third Iowa Cavalry, and was advanced step by step to the rank of major. He then went on staff duty, but in a short time returned to his regiment in the field. He remained in active duty until the close of the war. After the war, Major Noble opened a law office in St. Louis. Soon after beginning the practice of law, he was appointed United States District Attorney for the Eastern District of Missouri. In 1870 he resigned that office and practiced law in St. Louis until his appointment as Secretary of the Interior.

Benjamin Franklin Tracy, Secretary of the Navy, was born in Tioga county, New York. His early life was passed on a farm. He studied law, and in 1851 was admitted to the bar. Three years later he became District Attorney of Tioga county. He was afterwards elected to the New York Assembly. In 1862, Governor Morgan requested Mr. Tracy to raise a regiment for the counties of Broome, Tompkins and Tioga. He raised two regiments and was given command of one. When he resigned at the close of the war, he had attained the rank of brigadier-general. In 1866, he received the appointment of United States District Attorney for the Eastern District of New York, and held the position until 1873, when he resigned.

John Wanamaker, the Postmaster-General, was born in Philadelphia, July 11, 1837. His father was of German parentage and his mother a descendant of the Huguenots. His parents were poor, and at the age of fourteen he went to work in a clothing store, where he earned a dollar and a half a week. In five years he was head salesman of the house. In 1861, he went into partnership with his brother-in-law, Nathan Brown, and soon built up an enormous business. He has always been prominent in religious affairs. His history is commercial, not political. He took no active part in politics previous to the recent campaign. He was a member of the Centennial Commission, and was chiefly instrumental in raising the first million dollars for the project. He was repeatedly solicited to run for Congress and Mayor of Philadelphia, but always refused.

William Henry Harrison Miller, the Attorney-General, was a former law partner of President Harrison. He was born in Oneida county, New York. His father was a Whig, and an ardent admirer of President Harrison's grandfather. After being graduated from Hamilton College, New York, Mr. Miller studied law under the instruction of

Judge Waite, of Toledo, Ohio, afterwards Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He began the practice of law in Fort Wayne, Indiana, where he remained eight years. In 1874 he received an offer of partnership with General Harrison, and accepted it.

Jeremiah M. Rusk, Secretary of Agriculture, was born in Morgan county, Ohio, in 1830. He spent the early years of his youth in the country, and in 1852 settled on a farm in Wisconsin. In 1861, he was elected to the State Legislature. In 1862 he entered the army. He had been prominent in securing the enlistment of troops, and as a consequence was elected major of the Twenty-fifth Wisconsin Regiment. He served during the Indian outbreak in Minnesota, and also during the siege and capture of Vicksburg. He was with General Sherman on the famous march to the sea, being brevetted brigadier-general for gallantry at the battle of Talkehatchie. In 1865 he was elected to the office of Bank Comptroller, and held that position until the office was abolished by an amendment to the constitution. He was elected to Congress in 1870, 1872 and 1874. At the close of his last term, he retired to his farm until 1888, when he was elected Governor of the State of Wisconsin. The Department of Agriculture was formerly under the supervision of the Secretary of the Interior, and Jeremiah Rusk was the first Secretary appointed to the new portfolio.

The members of the Cabinet who had been most conspicuous in the public offices they had held were Secretaries Blaine, Windom and Rusk.

In his appointment of United States representatives to foreign countries, President Harrison showed great sagacity. The sons of two former presidents were honored.

On March 27th, President Harrison sent to the Senate the name of Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois, son of President Abraham Lincoln, to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Great Britain, and the appointment was immediately confirmed. Robert Lincoln was born in Springfield, August 1, 1843. He was the eldest son of President Lincoln. About a year after his birth, his parents moved to Springfield, which continued to be their home until Abraham Lincoln went to Washington as President. Robert Lincoln received his elementary education at the public schools and State University. He was prepared for an extended college course in Phillips Exeter Academy, and was graduated at Harvard in 1864. He then entered the Harvard Law School, and after a short time applied for admission to the army, and was regularly commissioned as a captain.

He served with honor through several engagements, and witnessed Lee's surrender at Appomattox. At the close of the war he took up the study of law, was admitted to the Chicago bar, and soon became very successful in the practice of his profession. In 1881, President Garfield chose him to be his Secretary of War. Sixteen years before Robert Lincoln had reached Washington from the battle field in time to stand by the death-bed of his father, assassinated while President, and he had the sad experience of being in Washington at the time of the shooting of President Garfield, a few months after his inauguration. Upon the accession of Vice-President Arthur to the presidential chair, Mr. Lincoln was the only member of the former Cabinet requested to retain his portfolio. He remained Secretary of War until the close of the administration.

Frederick D. Grant was sent as Minister to Austria-Hungary. He was the oldest son of General Grant, and was born in 1850. He accompanied his father during the war, and was in five battles before he was thirteen years old. He entered the National Military Academy at West Point in 1867, and was graduated from that institution in 1871. He served as lieutenant-colonel upon General Sheridan's staff. In 1876, Colonel Grant resigned from the army. He accompanied his father upon his trip around the world and assisted in the preparation of the "Memoirs."

Whitelaw Reid, of New York, was appointed Minister to France. He was born in Xenia, Ohio, in 1837. When nineteen years old he was graduated from Miami University. He taught school a year, and in 1857, when only twenty years old, bought the *Xenia News*. Two years later he was a correspondent at Columbus for several papers, and became famous as a war correspondent for the *Cincinnati Gazette* in 1861 and 1862, for which paper he wrote over the signature of "Agate." Afterward he became associate editor of the *Gazette*, then Librarian of the House of Representatives, and in 1865 took charge of the *New York Tribune* Bureau in Washington. In 1870, Mr. Reid became attached to the *New York Tribune*, and when Horace Greeley was nominated for the presidency he became managing editor. He remained in that position until the time of his appointment. He has edited several works, "After the War," "The Southern Tour" and "Ohio in the War."

Allen Thorndike Rice, of New York, was sent as Minister to St. Petersburg. Though only thirty-six years old at the time, he had a wide reputation as a writer and editor. He was born in Boston. At

the age of nine, he was taken abroad, and for five years lived in Europe. In 1867 he returned to the United States and remained until 1871, when he went to England and was graduated at Oxford in 1875. On his return to this country he entered the Columbia Law School. In 1876 he bought the *North American Review* and became its editor. He is noted as having organized, in 1879, and subsequently directed, an expedition which was despatched under the joint auspices of the United States and France to systematically investigate the remains of ancient civilization in Central America and New Mexico. In 1884 he bought a controlling interest in the *Le Matin*, one of the leading papers of Paris, which he successfully managed. He always took an active interest in politics, and in 1886 received the Republican nomination for Congress, but was defeated. He edited reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln and contributed valuable material to literature concerning the ancient cities of the New World.

John A. Enander, of Illinois, was appointed Minister and Councilor-General of the United States to Denmark. He was born in Sweden, and was the son of a farmer. In 1869, he came to America, entering the College of Augustana. He soon became editor of a Swedish newspaper printed in Chicago, and afterwards assumed the charge of several Scandinavian periodicals. He became an American in all the word implies, a broad and liberal-minded citizen, exercising a good influence upon all his countrymen in the United States.

Albert G. Porter was made Minister to Italy. He was born in Lawrenceville, Indiana. During the war he served in Congress for three terms. He declined re-election, and devoted himself to the practice of law in Indianapolis. In 1880 he was nominated for Governor of Indiana, and carried the State by a large majority. Both President Garfield and Arthur offered him places in their Cabinets, but he preferred to remain in the State office to which he had been elected.

Thomas W. Palmer, of Michigan, was sent as Minister to Spain. He was born in Detroit, and was educated at the University of Michigan. He was elected to the United States Senate and served with great credit.

John D. Washburn, of Massachusetts, was appointed to represent the United States in Switzerland. He was prominent in Massachusetts politics, and served in both houses of the State Legislature.

John F. Swift, of California, was made Minister to Japan. As a learned man and successful author, he was favorably known. Having been a great traveler, he was well versed in diplomatic matters. In

1886 he was the Republican candidate for Governor of California. He framed the famous Anti-Chinese Bill, which, when presented to the Senate, produced a protracted discussion.

One of the first events of President Harrison's Administration was the opening of the Oklahoma Territory to settlers. The Oklahoma Territory was part of the great Indian reservation in the Indian Territory. The lands could only be opened by the acceptance and consent of the Indians, and this acceptance and consent had to be accompanied by satisfactory proof that it had been obtained freely and in the manner and form required by the twelfth article of the treaty of 1876.

President Harrison having approved the deed by which the Indians ceded to the United States all their right and title to the land held by them in the Oklahoma tract, there was immediately a great stampede of settlers toward the new Territory. The cession of land made by the Creek and Seminole Indians embraced several million acres, between the Indian river on the south and the Cherokee outlet on the north. One hundred thousand dollars was appropriated by the Government towards surveying this land to be opened for settlement. On March 23d, the President issued a proclamation declaring the land open to settlers at noon on the 22d of April. During the month following this proclamation there was a great rush westward, and the excitement was intense.

For ten years there had been an effort on the part of a certain number of settlers to have the territory opened. In 1879, one Captain Payne attempted to take possession of some land on the reservation. He met with strong opposition from the Government. Had Payne's party been allowed to peaceably settle on the lands which he believed to be public property, it is doubtful whether there would have been any concerted movement toward Oklahoma. The opposition awakened widespread interest in the country, and the history of the "Oklahoma boomers" lent a sort of fascinating glamour to the country. Captain Payne, the head of the original party, had been an army scout and guide. He made frequent excursions in the Indian country through the years immediately following the close of the war, and so became thoroughly acquainted with it. Recognizing this as public land under the treaty of 1866, he, in 1879, organized a small colony for the purpose of effecting a settlement. In December, 1880, the colonists were followed by United States troops. Payne was arrested and the colonies were disbanded. Payne was tried and put under bonds not to enter the territory; but he was not discouraged. He and his colonists, the "Okla-

homa boomers," subsequently made four well-organized expeditions into the territory, laid out towns, located farms, built houses and plowed fields. Each time Payne was turned out by the military and all his improvements destroyed. His last expedition was made in 1884, in which year he died. In the fall of 1884, the United States Court at Topeka had decided that the lands were public property, and at the time of his death Payne had another party organized. A determined pioneer became the leader, and started with four hundred and fifty men, but they were expelled. After this, more conservative settlers petitioned Congress, and through their intercessions the matter was formally considered. The Government was just in the position that it took in protecting the rights of the Indians, for neither the boomers nor the horde of speculators, who defied military rule, had any authority for pressing their claims.

The Oklahoma tract opened for settlement was but a very small part of what is known as the Oklahoma region. It contains about as much territory as Rhode Island and Delaware combined, and comprises about thirteen thousand quarter sections of homestead claims.

On the evening before the day set for the entrance into the Oklahoma Territory, it is estimated that at least fifty thousand people were anxiously waiting on the borders of the long-coveted region. According to law, the land could be pre-empted by the first to stake claims, and there was no precedence given to the original settlers who had fought for permission to occupy the country. On the long looked for 22d of April the scenes in the Oklahoma country rivaled anything in the previous history of the United States. The settlers entered in a frenzy of excitement. Wagons and all other incumbrances were abandoned, and the pioneers made all possible haste to procure claims. In a single day every available piece of farming land was pre-empted, and thousands of the settlers were unable to obtain any property. Within twenty-four hours several towns sprang up, city officers were elected, and the territory that had been a wilderness on the evening of April 21st was a well-populated country before another nightfall. Much suffering was experienced by the settlers, many of whom had spent all their money in reaching the much talked of country. Food and water failed, and hundreds of disappointed pioneers were glad to return to their former homes.

On March 15 and 16, 1889, the United States lost three men-of-war in a hurricane. The vessels were lying in the harbor of Apia, in Samoan waters. The *Vandalia* and *Trenton* were totally destroyed and

the *Nipsic* was driven ashore in a badly-damaged condition. A number of lives were lost.

The celebration of the centennial anniversary of George Washington's inauguration is one of the most important events in the recent history of the United States. The day (April 30, 1889) was made a legal holiday and was enthusiastically observed throughout the land. In every city commemorative exercises were held. Patriotic addresses were delivered in the churches and schools, and men, women and children took equal interest in the great demonstration. The event which was thus recalled by a united and rejoicing people was of double importance. While the memory of the man, George Washington, was thus honored, the installation of the first President as the head of a new Government was but the outward sign of that more "perfect Union" which the Constitution had been framed to establish. The day was really the one hundredth birthday of a great and prosperous nation. The annals of the past were full of wonderful occurrences, and the people who stood on the dividing line between the first and second centuries of constitutional government had cause for deepest thankfulness. Behind them lay many wars and dangers out of which the nation had issued in peace and safety. Before them stretched what seemed an age of rapid development and undisturbed prosperity.

Although the centennial anniversary of Washington's inauguration was a day universally celebrated East, West, North and South, the principal demonstrations took place in New York City, which was the seat of the Government in 1789. In arranging the ceremonies, in which the Government officials took part, it was the desire to recall as many incidents and imitate as many festivities of the past as was possible under the altered condition of the times. On the night of April 28, 1889, President Harrison and a large party left Washington for New York City, traveling the same route as that traversed by Washington a century before. When Washington made his memorable journey he started on April 16, driving in his coach, which was an imposing if not a rapid vehicle. His progress was delayed by repeated ovations at every point along the line.

At Philadelphia, twenty thousand people—an immense crowd for the time—greeted him, and a gorgeous banquet was given in his honor at the City Tavern. When he reached the bridge at Trenton, he passed under a triumphal arch, and young girls, dressed in white and crowned with garlands, strewed his way with flowers. President Harrison and party did not stop until Elizabeth, New Jersey, was reached. It was at

this little city that Washington was entertained by Elias Boudinot, a member of the Continental Congress. The Governor of the State received President Harrison, and, after a formal "breakfast," a picturesque procession was reviewed. One of the unique features of the procession was a company of men, the descendants of the farmers who had met Washington at Wheatshaf. They were dressed in Continental costume and carried old-time farming implements. On the road between Elizabeth and Elizabethport there was a large arch, upon which were stationed young girls dressed to represent the States of the Union. After the fashion of the Trenton women in the time of Washington, they showered flowers upon the passing President. At Elizabethport, President Harrison was taken aboard a fine ship called the *Dispatch*. From Elizabethport, Washington had embarked in a splendid red-canopied barge, specially built for the purpose; and, surrounded by small boats full of men and women singing choruses of welcome, he had slowly finished his journey to New York City. The spectacle that met the eye of President Harrison as the *Dispatch* steamed toward New York Bay was one that surpassed anything that was ever imagined by men of a past generation. Four hundred vessels were drawn up in line. Each was bright with bunting, the decorations being elaborate and effective. The naval division formed a single column. The *Chicago* carried the flag of the Secretary of the Navy, and the admiral's flag was borne by the *Boston*. The other ships belonging to the navy were the *Atlanta*, *Yorktown*, *Juniata*, *Essex*, *Brooklyn*, *Jamestown* and the old *Kearsarge*. The revenue and yacht divisions formed a part of the naval parade that was exceedingly brilliant. When the *Dispatch* reached the *Chicago*, the entire fleet of steamers blew whistles and the sound was deafening. The booming of cannon and music from a hundred bands added to the noise, while on land and shore thousands of people cheered the approaching President.

As the *Dispatch* anchored opposite Wall street ferry, a barge, manned by a crew belonging to the same society as the one which had rowed Washington ashore, met President Harrison. The old banner of the Marine Society, which had been carried before Washington, floated from the boat, and its faded and yellow silk was a silent witness to the flight of time. As the President landed on the wharf, the chimes of old Trinity Church played the "Doxology."

New York City was magnificently decorated for the gala days of the celebration. The streets were lined and festooned with the national colors, and arches were erected across the principal streets. After the

great naval parade, the President held a public reception, at the beginning of which he received the greetings of several hundred school children, who carried baskets of flowers and scattered them in the pathway of the presidential party. In the evening, a grand centennial ball was given at the Metropolitan Opera House. Its splendor was unparalleled by any similar entertainment that had ever taken place in the United States. The great opera house was transformed into a blooming garden. Roses and orchids were used by the thousands, and rare flowers were woven into many odd designs. More than six thousand people were present at this ball.

On the morning of the 30th of April, the great day of the celebration, President Harrison attended services at St. Paul's Church, in Broadway. He sat in the same pew that Washington had occupied on the morning of his inauguration. In the congregation, on this occasion, there was a notable gathering of the most distinguished men of the nation, and the day added historic interest to the church already hallowed by many sacred memories of the past. From St. Paul's Church, the President was escorted to the Sub-Treasury building, where the literary exercises of the day were held. From a platform prepared for the speakers, the addresses were made. The exercises of the day opened with the appropriate words:

"Fellow-citizens: One hundred years ago, on this spot, George Washington, as first President of the United States, took his oath of office upon the Holy Bible. That sacred volume is here to-day, silently attesting the basis upon which our nation was constructed and the dependence of our people upon Almighty God. In the words, then, of one of the founders of the Government, with hearts overflowing with gratitude to our Sovereign Benefactor for granting to us existence, for continuing it to the present period, and for accumulating on us blessings spiritual and temporal through life, may we with fervor beseech Him so to continue them as best to promote His glory and our welfare."

A poem, written for the occasion by John G. Whittier, the venerable poet, was one of the important features of the literary programme. The oration of the day was delivered by Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, and was an eloquent effort.

After the literary exercises, there was a military parade that was one of the most memorable pageants of recent times. It was many miles in length, and was more than six hours in passing the reviewing stand.

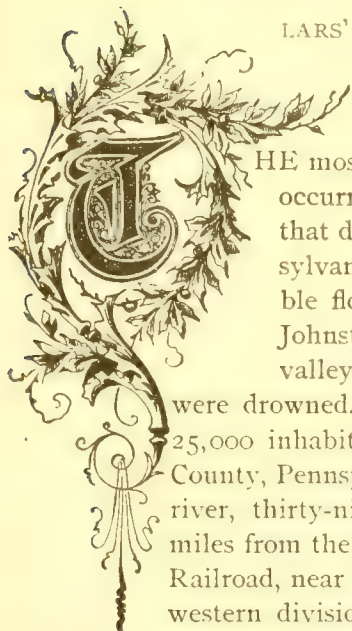
The centennial celebration in New York City closed with a banquet at the Metropolitan Opera House. The scene was scarcely less brilliant

than on the preceding night of the ball. Eight hundred guests were present. The speakers of the evening were President Harrison, ex-President Cleveland, ex-President Hayes, Chief Justice Fuller, General Sherman, James Russell Lowell, Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard College, and Fitzhugh Lee, Governor of Virginia.

CHAPTER CVII.

The Great Calamity.

BURSTING OF A RESERVOIR IN THE CONEMAUGH VALLEY, PENNSYLVANIA—APPALLING RUSH OF WATER DOWN THE VALLEY—
DESTRUCTION OF JOHNSTOWN—THOUSANDS OF
LIVES LOST AND MILLIONS OF DOLLARS' WORTH OF PROPERTY
DESTROYED.



THE most awful calamity of the Nineteenth Century occurred on the afternoon of May 31, 1889. On that date, the city of Johnstown, in Western Pennsylvania, was wiped out of existence by an irresistible flood, and thousands of people, not only in Johnstown, but in other towns in the Conemaugh valley, in which the ill-fated city was located, were drowned. Johnstown was a post borough of about 25,000 inhabitants, and was the largest town in Cambria County, Pennsylvania. It was situated on the Conemaugh river, thirty-nine miles southwest of Altoona, and thirty miles from the famous horseshoe curve of the Pennsylvania Railroad, near Cresson. It was the eastern terminus of the western division of the Pennsylvania Canal, and a large station on the Pennsylvania Railroad. It was picturesquely situated among a ridge of mountains rich in bituminous coal, limestone and fire clay, and was the seat of the Cambria iron works, which employed 7,000 men in the manufacture of iron and steel rails. It had a national and several savings banks, and a number of flour, planing and rolling mills and tanneries. It supported two daily and four weekly newspapers, sixteen churches, a convent and an academy.

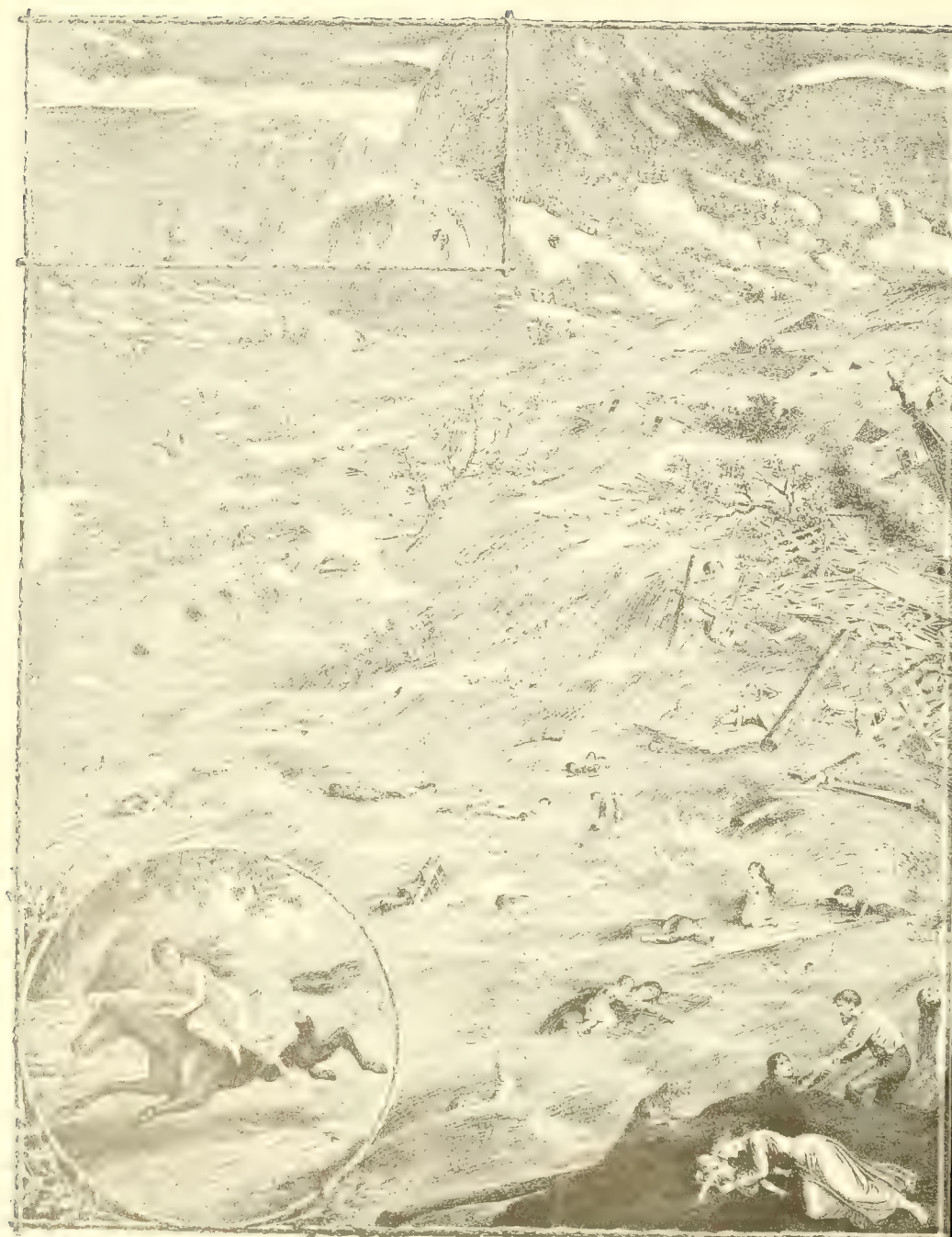
The Conemaugh river, on which Johnstown was located, rises in Cambria County, and runs through a mountainous country, forming the boundary between Indiana and Westmoreland Counties. It unites with the Loyal Harra Creek, at Saltsburg, Indiana County, and forms

the Kiskiminitas river, which runs northwestward, forming the boundary between Armstrong and Westmoreland Counties. The Kiskiminitas enters the Alleghany river at Freeport. The towns along the Conemaugh, from Johnstown down, were Cambria, Sheridan, Cooperstown, Sang Hollow, Conemaugh, Mineral Point, Nineveh, New Florence, Lacotte, Lockport, Bolivar, Coke Valley, Snyder, Tunnelton, Kelly's, White, and Saltsburg. Most of these were destroyed in the great catastrophe.

The body of water that did the immense damage at Johnstown covered 700 acres. It was two and a half miles long and about three-fourths of a mile wide. It was an artificial lake, and lay between two high hills, ten miles back of Johnstown. It was the old canal reservoir, long since abandoned, and was purchased from the Pennsylvania Railroad, in 1879, by the South Fork Hunting and Fishing Club. The reservoir had been constructed by building a high retaining wall at the lower end of the basin, and allowing the water from a number of small streams to flow into the depression. The space between the hills soon filled up, and the retaining wall, which was on the Johnstown side, served as a dam. This South Fork Dam, as it was called, had stood for so many years that people were confident that it was all right, and no fears were entertained as to its safety. This sense of security was to be rudely dispelled, and in a most tragic manner.

At about 4 o'clock on the afternoon of Friday, May 31, 1889, the operator at South Fork telegraphed to Johnstown that the great South Fork dam was about to burst. Then all telegraphic communication ceased, as the wires went down immediately afterward. An hour later there came a rush of water into Johnstown that was appalling. It poured down Conemaugh creek in a great wall twenty-five feet high, sweeping everything before it. The immense works of the Cambria Iron Company, employing 7,000 men, the second largest works in the country, was buried out of sight, with the exception of the roofs and chimney tops, and the roofs and chimneys soon began to crumble and disappear under the battering of the flood. Half the town seemed to be lifted from its foundations and swept away at once. The wreckage covered the water thicker than the houses had stood before. It was no longer a flood of water; it was a town afloat.

Many had taken warning and fled to the higher grounds, but thousands of men, women and children were swept away, their heartrending cries rising above the crash of the smashing houses. The mass of wreck, water, dead bodies and drowning people rushed down into the mouth of



THE JOHNS TOWN

HUNDREDS OF YEARS

THE JOHNS

JOHNS TOWN



THE GREAT EARTHQUAKE

DISASTER

MAY 1862

the gorge at the foot of the valley in which Johnstown stood, where the hills came together like a pair of giant arms and choked the stream. The stone railroad bridge which spanned the stream at that point stood firm as the hills themselves. The result was an awful jam. The wreck caught on the masonry. It thickened into a dam. It clung to the bridge in the hollow of the hill. It gathered strength with every piece of wreck, and everything that crushed into it was bound together into a tangled wall, closing up half the outlet, around which the mountain waters hurled their flood. The water burst even the flood limits which it had taken for its new banks, and poured a new river into a new channel through the heart of the lower part of the city. The drift piled up against the stone bridge and added its wreck to the heap, until it formed a tangled mass from thirty to sixty feet thick, rising high above the water and stretching back three-fourths of a mile along the curve of the hill. This, later in the night, took fire, but it probably added no pang to the hundreds of unfortunate people who were caught in it. The water had left nothing for the fire to do. It could only destroy the bodies; the victims' sufferings were over.

The first news of the terrible calamity to reach the outside world came from Sang Hollow, a little town in the Conemaugh valley, down the stream from Johnstown. The river rushing past Sang Hollow was soon black with drift, and gave the first tidings of what had happened. Houses, fragments of bridges, logs, dead bodies and many wrecks of all kinds were heaving and darting together on the troubled water. Men, women and children, sweeping by on pieces of wreck, filled the air with unavailing cries for help. One hundred and nineteen living people were counted going by before 8 o'clock, and the agonizing cries that came up from the water gave evidence of the awful scenes the darkness hid from sight. Very little help could be rendered. No boats could live in such an awful torrent of rushing wreck.

Johnstown was utterly destroyed, only one or two buildings remaining standing. A dozen little towns in the valley were also completely annihilated. Watchers with lanterns remained along the banks until day-break, when the first view of the awful devastation of the flood was witnessed. Along the banks lay the remnants of what had once been dwelling-houses and stores. Here and there was an uprooted tree. Piles of drift lay about, in some of which bodies of victims of the flood were found. Rescuing parties were formed in all of the towns along the railroad. Houses were thrown open to refugees, and every possible means was used to protect the homeless. For two days there was

absolutely no news from Johnstown, no more than if it had never existed on the face of the earth.

The whole country at once took steps to relieve the necessities of the distressed. The generosity of the world was never more spontaneously or nobly displayed than it was in this calamity. Over \$1,300,000 was raised for the benefit of the sufferers and to relieve the demands of the needy. Pittsburgh alone raised \$150,000 the day after the disaster occurred. The loss of life was between 5,000 and 8,000, and because only 2,500 bodies were recovered, the exact figures as to the number lost will never be known. Over 20,000 people were rendered homeless, and \$38,000,000 worth of property was destroyed.

Strange to say, the waters had hardly subsided before ghouls in human form appeared upon the scene to rob the dead, and steal what property they could. Some of these demons were hanged by mobs, while others were shot. Such was the influx of the lawless into the devastated territory that it was found necessary to call out the militia, and several regiments, under General Hastings, preserved order in the vicinity for many weeks.

The first shock over, the feeling of sorrow among the people at large gave way to a demand for justice and for a thorough investigation into the cause of the disaster, that the blame for it might be placed where it belonged. A coroner's jury was impaneled, and after viewing 700 dead bodies at Johnstown, it proceeded to take testimony, and was over a month at the work. It had been definitely decided that all of the trouble had been caused by the breaking of the South Fork dam. To establish the responsibility for this was the object, therefore, of the inquiry. The South Fork Hunting and Fishing Club members testified that when they bought the site of the old reservoir, a section of 150 feet had been washed out of the middle. This was rebuilt at an expense of \$17,000, and the work was thought to be very strong. At the base the dam was 380 feet thick, and gradually tapered, until at the top it was about 35 feet thick. It was considered amply secure, and such faith had the company in its stability, that the top of the dam was used as a driveway. It took two years to complete the work, men being engaged on it from 1879 to 1881. While it was in process of construction the residents of Johnstown expressed some fears as to the solidity of the work, and requested that it be examined by experts. It was so examined, the experts reporting it to be all right, although pointing out the necessity of stopping all leaks promptly. The members of the club themselves discovered that the sluiceway that carried

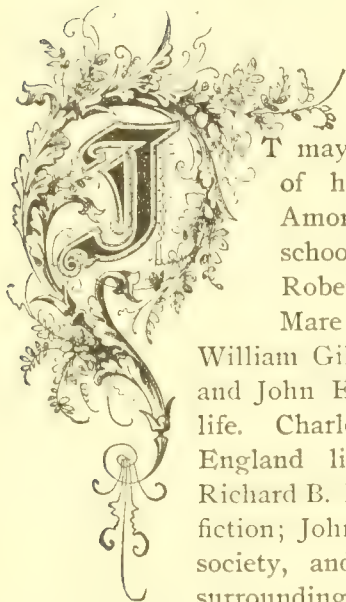
off the surplus or overflow from the lake was not large enough in times of storm, so five feet of solid rock were cut away in order to increase the mouth of the lake. The inquiry developed the fact, that in 1881, when work was going on, the water, which was usually fifteen feet below the top of the dam, rose to the top, and threatened to do what it did on the dreadful occasion to which this chapter is devoted. The workmen hastened to the scene and piled debris of all sorts on the top to prevent a washout. It was found by the jury that the five streams from the mountain sides, South Fork, Muddy Run, Dunmeyer's Inlet, Rodebaugh's Inlet and an unnamed brook, had been suddenly surcharged with water, and that this volume, dashing into Conemaugh lake, raised the water above the surface of the dam, washed away the top coping, followed up this advantage by making a gap, and soon caused a yawning crevice that shot the water as from the mouth of a cannon. When once uncontrolled, it was probably a question of only a few moments to tear down the whole dam. The channel of the Conemaugh river is narrow, and the adjacent valley nothing but a gorge. Hence the fearful destructiveness of the flood.

The coroner's jury found that the dam had not been properly constructed; that it had been leaking for some time prior to the catastrophe, and that the members of the fishing club were aware of the fact, but had taken no steps to remedy the evil. They were, therefore, responsible for the disaster. The jury, accordingly, in its verdict, rendered over a month after the calamity, severely censured the members of the South Fork Fishing and Hunting Club, on whom it placed all of the blame. Thus, what was at first deemed an act of Providence, was proven to have resulted from the carelessness of man.

CHAPTER CVIII.

Of The Making of Good Books, Etc.

THE LITERATURE OF THE LAST THIRTY YEARS.



It may be well at this point to take up the thread of history which concerns national literature. Among the novelists who preceded the present school, and who are now almost forgotten, are Robert Montgomery Bird, John Neal, William Mare (an historical novelist), Sylvester Judd, William Gilmore Simms (a leading Southern writer), and John Esten Cooke, also a delineator of Southern life. Charles F. Briggs wrote several novels of New England life, partly humorous in their character; Richard B. Kimball chose New York City for his field of fiction; John P. Kennedy preferred to portray old-times society, and Hermon Nelaille chose the sea as the surrounding for his characters.

The novel which has had the greatest popular success of any American book is Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin." As a literary success, it was remarkable, and as a moral factor, it has doubtless had more direct and practical influence upon the people than any book ever written. It was published in 1852, and won more converts to the anti-slavery cause than all the sermons preached or laws enacted. Strongly dramatic and deeply fascinating in plot, "Uncle Tom's Cabin" still retains its popularity, although the great abolition cause that it championed has long since triumphed. Every new edition finds ready sale, and no book published in America has been so universally read.

"The Wide, Wide World," of the sisters Susan and Anna Warner, published in 1850, has been one of the very successful American books. Catherine Sedgwick, the author of "Hope Leslie;" Marion Cole Harris, who wrote "Rutledge," and Maria S. Cummins, the author of "The

Lamplighter," are among the first women who did graceful and creditable work in America. "Grace Greenwood" (Sarah J. Lippencott) and Fanny Fern" (Mrs. James Parton) were the first to introduce the style of light and pleasant magazine sketching, which has since become so popular.

Of the American essayists, Ralph Waldo Emerson is the most distinguished. He was born in Boston in 1802, the descendant of eight generations of clergymen. Born with a religious habit of thought, he still imbibed the healthy radicalism of the age, and became a philosopher whose purity and breadth of thought made him the rival of any thinker, ancient or modern. He was one of the founders of the Transcendental movement, in which Margaret Fuller, Bronson Alcott, Thoreau and the younger Channing were also associated. Henry D. Thoreau was a recluse, who lived in Concord, on the shores of Walden Pond. He kept apart from men, and devoted his life to the study of nature. Amos Bronson Alcott was a representative Transcendentalist, and the only man in this country who cultivated the art of imparting knowledge by "Conversations." These he held for many years in various parts of the United States. George William Curtis is the writer of a number of graceful essays. George Ticknor is the author of an elaborate history of Spanish literature. Edwin P. Whipple is considered the most faithful of American critics. George S. Hillard and Charles E. Norton are known for their artistic books of Italian travel. One of the American classics of travel, "Two Years Before the Mast," is from the pen of Richard H. Dana, Jr. Thomas Starr King has devoted himself largely to descriptions of the White Mountains. Mrs. Lydia Maria Child has written two books devoted to the science of religion, and she was the first woman to contribute to the anti-slavery literature of the country. Donald G. Mitchell wrote "Dream-Life" and the "Reveries of a Bachelor," two very delightful books. F. S. Cozzens devoted his pen to descriptions of Nova Scotia. Henry W. Herbert made field sports the subject of his interesting books. Henry and William Reed wrote literary and historical criticisms. Joseph C. Neal and George H. Derby wrote humorous books. Dr. Edward Robinson produced a work on Biblical research, which is considered a standard in all countries. Richard Grant White is known for his excellent critical works and his essays on language. He, as well as Horace Howard Furness, have edited editions of Shakspeare in this country.

Dr. J. G. Holland has been popular as an essayist, a novelist and a

poet. His name is connected with the founding of *Scribner's Magazine*, of which he was the editor-in-chief until his death, in 1881. To him the mass of American readers are deeply indebted for the great impetus that he gave to periodical literature. "Bitter Sweet" and "Kathrina," two beautiful poems, by Dr. Holland, achieved great success. With the exception of Longfellow's "Hiawatha," "Kathrina" has had a larger sale than any other American poem. Henry T. Tuckerman wrote many pleasant things, in somewhat the same style as Dr. Holland.

The writers on law and medicine in this country have been very numerous. The "Commentaries on American Law," by James Kent, and the "International Law," of Henry Wheaton, deserve special mention.

The dictionaries of Noah Webster and Joseph E. Worcester; the philological works of William D. Whitney, George P. Marsh, Francis J. Child, S. S. Halderman, E. A. Sophocles, F. A. March and James Hadley; the ethnological works of H. R. Schoolcraft, C. C. Jones Jr., and H. H. Bancroft, are valuable contributions to our literature. H. H. Bancroft is also known as the most careful and painstaking historian of the great Western coast, Alaska and the Northwestern States.

Asa Gray and John Torrey have written books on botany. Nathaniel Bowditch, Elias Loomis, Benjamin Pierce, Simon Newcomb and Richard Proctor are known for their mathematical and astronomical publications.

Books on birds have been written by J. J. Audubon, Elliot Cones and T. M. Brewer. John Burrows has written lovingly of birds and many other subjects of nature, in a manner so charming as to acquaint the least scientific with the secrets of American woods and fields.

Louis Agassiz, Edward Hitchcock, and James D. Dana are among those who have written geological treatises. Henry C. Carey, and Dr. Theodore D. Wookey have written well on political economy and international law, but the recent discussions concerning the tariff have brought into existence a large number of writers on kindred subjects. Arnold Guyot is noted for his physical geographies. W. J. Hardee, Winfield Scott, W. H. Halleck and George B. McClellan have published books on military science.

Since the War of Secession, Grant and Logan have published large histories concerning that period. The last history of the Rebellion is by Rossiter Johnson. Horace Greeley and Alexander H. Stephens are the fullest in their account of the anti-slavery contest, which preceded and

attended the war. Dr. John W. Draper has attempted to give an unpartisan record of the politics of the time. Vice-President Wilson's "Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America" is a valuable history. General Sherman has written his reminiscences of the war.

Our later poets have shown, in some cases, eccentricities which have won a somewhat undeserved praise for them in England, and not a little furious criticism in America. Whitman and Miller are two of our most erratic poets. Joaquin Miller is known for his "Songs of the Sierras," and other poems of Western life. Walt Whitman deals neither in rhyme nor metre, but writes democratic rhapsodies for the people.

Bayard Taylor is not known alone as a poet, though he wrote impassioned and glowing verses. His numerous books of travel are charming and valuable, and his novels present accurate pictures of American life. He also made a valuable translation of both parts of "Faust."

Richard Henry Stoddard is the author of nine volumes of short poems, highly finished in style and full of true feeling. He is, perhaps, the most scholarly of our living poets. In the face of sorrow and bitterness, he has cherished his faith in the highest ideal of poetic art, giving to the world many beautiful lyrics, some of which have been scattered far and wide over the country. His poem on the death of Thackeray is to be highly praised. "The King's Bell," and "Wratislaw" prove him to be a narrative poet of high rank. One of his most popular poems is "A Wedding Under the Directory."

John Godfrey Saxe has occupied a position in American literature somewhat similar to that of Hood in English literature. The English language is a thing with him to be used as a plaything, and his poems are deliciously witty and airy.

John Townsend Trowbridge is an excellent writer of juvenile stories. Though his novels have interest, he is remembered most frequently for his stories for boys. Another popular writer of juvenile stories is "Oliver Optic" (W. T. Adams).

Francis Bret Harte is a unique writer, who has portrayed with unequalled wit and pathos, life in California. Mr. Harte's society poems are graceful, and his prose burlesques are really excellent. John Hay is a popular writer of dialect verse. Charles Godfrey Leland (Hans Breitman) is also known largely by his dialect verses. Charles Halpin was a poet capable of being both amusing and tender, and Will Carleton has long been popular for his homely verses on Western farm life.

Edgar Fawcett is an accomplished writer of the Swinburnian school.

He has devoted himself to literature for the last fifteen years, and has been most prolific, both of prose and verse. His "Fantasy and Passion," "Song and Story" and "Romance and Revery" represent part of his poetry. In addition to his poetry and sketches, Mr. Fawcett has published a number of novels.

Thomas Bailey Aldrich, journalist, poet and novelist, has done many exquisite pieces of work and is remarkable for his versatility. His ballad of "Baby Bell" is an especially dainty poem. Holding first rank among the poets of America, Mr. Aldrich has also entered many other fields of literature, in all of which he has excelled.

Edmund Clarence Stedman first attracted attention by a brilliant social satire, called "The Diamond Wedding." Since then, he has built up, by patient and careful work, an honorable and enviable place as a poet. His style is highly polished, yet forcible. His warlike ballad, "How Old Brown took Harper's Ferry," will live long after similar poems touching the Civil War are forgotten.

The Piatts, John James and his wife, Sarah M. Bryan, are poets of a delicate and refined order. Paul H. Hayne, of Georgia, has written many beautiful sonnets, and holds a foremost place among poets of genuine feeling and earnest aim. In the South, where he was long the leading poet, his memory is greatly loved.

Thomas Buchanan Read, who wrote "Sheridan's Ride," published several volumes of poems. "Drifting," a delicate bit of verse, is widely known. Mr. Read was an artist of great talent, and spent many years of his life in Florence, Italy. Forsythe Willson, the author of "The Old Sergeant," and Elbridge J. Cutler, are among the writers who embalm recollections of the war. George Arnold, who died at an early age, was a pleasant writer of Bohemian verse.

Richard Watson Gilder, editor of the *Century Magazine*, is a leader of a small band of genuine poets. He writes sonnets of rare delicacy. His "New Day," "The Poet and His Master" and collected "Poems and Lyrics" will rank among the American classics. His poems have the true musical rhythm and breathe a spirit of lofty aspiration.

George Parsons Lathrop is a writer of musical verse, and his wife, who is a daughter of Nathaniel Hawthorne, is well known in the literary world. Mrs. Lathrop's brother, Julian Hawthorne, is one of the best known of living writers. His books have many excellent characteristics, but suffer in contrast with his father's wonderful works.

Sidney Lanier was a Southern poet of remarkable promise. His untimely death cut short a brilliant career.

William Dean Howells occupies a prominent place as the leader of realistic fiction in America. He began his literary career as editor of a small newspaper. He first won a wide reputation by his "Italian Journeys" and "Venetian Life," two books of exquisite literary style. He was one of the editors of *The Nation*, and afterwards chief editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. He has published a number of novels which have attained wide popularity. They are considered the best type of American fiction. Mr. Howells portrays life with a photographic minuteness which is tedious to those who admire the dramatic novel, but his style is admirable.

Henry James, is painstaking and artistic, but he lacks the fine humor which distinguishes Mr. Howells. Though he writes on American life, it is not representative American life, and while his art may appeal to the intellect, he does not succeed in touching the heart.

Edward Eggleston, an Indiana author, has written invaluable novels of backwoods life.

Elizabeth Stuart Phelps is a writer of remarkable short stories and of novels of a religious type.

E. P. Roe is a novelist who has a wide circle of readers, but whose books lack artistic value. He made his reputation upon "Barriers Burned Away," a story of the Chicago fire.

H. C. Bunner, the editor of the comic weekly, *Puck*, has won recognition as a graceful writer of *vers de société*. His "Airs from Arcady" are bright and clever. Maurice F. Egan and George Edgar Montgomery are among the rising versifiers. Charles Nordhoff, the author of "Cape Cod Stories" and a volume on California, deserves mention as an entertaining writer. Thomas Dunn English wrote the lines of "Ben Bolt," which are popular in song. Dr. William A. Hammond is the author of a number of very creditable novels. Theodore Winthrop is known through "Cecil Dreeme" and "John Brent," two fresh and racy stories. Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen (who, though not born an American, is practically one) is the writer of charming Norwegian stories, and W. H. Bishop has won a reputation by his sketches of travels.

James Whitcomb Reilly is an Indiana poet, who has dealt with homely subjects in a peculiarly felicitous manner. His dialect poems rank with the best that have ever been produced. His last volume of poems has met with great success.

Among the women who have written good short poems are Margaret J. Preston, Elizabeth Akers Allen, Rose Terry Cooke, Nora Perry,

Lucy Larcom, Celia Thaxter and Helen Hunt Jackson. Mrs. Jackson wrote a remarkable novel, "Ramona," which was warmly received, and she made a lasting reputation by her "Century of Dishonor," which dealt with the Indian question. Ella Wheeler Wilcox has written two volumes of poetry, which, though they lack literary precision, are very popular.

Louise May Alcott, a daughter of A. B. Alcott, the Transcendentalist, is the best writer of juvenile stories. Her "Little Women" is the most widely read of any American book for the young. Harriet Prescott Spofford has written several novels in a rich and sumptuous style. Her many short stories have never been collected. Mary L. Booth and Martha J. Lamb have contributed to historical literature.

Literature as a profession was, until recently, little followed in the South. William Gilmore Simms was one of the first to produce any novels with a local coloring. The institutions and traditions of Southern life did not foster literature as a profession. The men who had leisure and genius preferred the career of the statesman to the rather precarious profession of the man of letters. J. P. Kennedy wrote "Horse-shoe Robinson" and "Swallow Barn," two books containing faithful pictures of the South, but their author was, primarily, a lawyer and a politician. Beverley Tucker wrote a novel which Poe pronounced "the best American novel." There were a few verse writers like Philip Pendleton Cooke and Henry Timrod, but Simms' prophecy that there would never be a Southern literature under slave-holding aristocracy proved true. After the war, the profession of letters began to be popular. John Esten Cooke was among the first to write "for bread, not fame," and he procured both. Three poets upheld the literary claims of the South, but they have all passed away now. They were Father Ryan, the poet-priest, and Paul Hamilton Hayne and Sidney Lanier, both of whom have been previously mentioned in this chapter.

To-day there is a most important school of Southern writers, several of whom have achieved brilliant success. They are nearly all young men and women, who belong to the new era since the war. George W. Cable, who stands at the head of the Southern authors, was born in 1844. At an early age he was compelled to support himself, and served in a number of clerical positions. At nineteen, he entered the Confederate army. While in the army he devoted every available moment to the study of Latin and the higher mathematics. When the war was over he returned to his former home in New Orleans. He was absolutely penniless, and began life anew as an errand boy. In 1869,

he was engaged on the staff of the *Picayune*, but being requested to take charge of the theatrical columns, he resigned his position because he cherished scruples against dramatic entertainments. Strangely enough, this prejudice once extended to novel reading. Having entered a mercantile house as accountant and correspondence clerk, he remained with the firm until 1879. During this time he wrote stories which have since been collected under the head of "Old Creole Days." Encouraged by the success of these stories, he determined to devote himself to literature. His first novel, "The Grandissimes," met with a cordial reception. It was followed by the pathetic and tragic story of "Madame Delphine," and "Dr. Sevier" was the last of his long stories. Mr. Cable confines himself to Southern subjects, and he portrays Creole life with a tender sympathy and painstaking realism. In the pages of his novels, pathos is blended with a quaint humor, and his style is original, polished and fascinating.

Richard Malcolm Johnston is well known among the writers of the South, and belongs to the old regime, although closely identified with the new and progressive era. Although a successful lawyer, he gave up his practice to accept the chair of belles-lettres in the University of Georgia, where he remained until the outbreak of the civil war. His first literary venture was the "Dukesborough Tales," and his short stories, strong, humorous and original, are now familiar to every magazine reader. Mr. Johnston deals with Georgia life, and Joel Chandler Harris is another writer who depicts characters from the same State. Mr. Harris first introduced his readers to the mountaineers and moonshiners of middle Georgia, but "Uncle Remus, His Songs and Sayings," a volume of negro folk lore, met with such success that his reputation rests chiefly upon the sayings and doings of "Brer Rabbit" and his companions.

Thomas Nelson Page, a young lawyer of Virginia, made his reputation upon a story called "Marse Chan," a dramatic, pathetic and deliciously humorous little tale. He has contributed a number of stories to the magazines, and is a talented writer. Among the younger verse writers of the South, Robert Burns Wilson is prominent. Lucile Hearn, of Louisiana, writes both prose and verse very acceptably.

Among the women of the South there has recently been a wonderful activity, and some of them have won phenomenal success. Miss Grace King, of New Orleans, wrote a short story, "Monsieur Motte," which brought her wide fame. Miss Mary Noailles Murfree made one of the literary sensations of the day. Under the *nom de plume* of Charles

Egbert Craddock, she published several strong stories that won the applause of the critics, and met with an enthusiastic reception. "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," which has been much admired by every reader, abounds with beautiful and graphic descriptions and is written in a vivid and polished style. Miss M. G. McClelland is the author of a novel called "Oblivion," which is delicate and charming in conception. Miss Frances Courtenay Baylor is another Southern woman who has gained prominence. "On Both Sides" is a sketch that is a witty and clever production. Miss Julia Magruder has given "Across the Chasm" to the public. It is a study of social condition since the war, and is a conscientious effort.

Amelie Rives (now Mrs. Chanler) has risen to literary fame with great rapidity. She became known through a short story called "A Brother to Dragons." Her success was instantaneous, and a drama, a number of short stories, and two novels have appeared in quick succession.

Within the past few years there has been a wonderful and increasing activity in literary work all over the United States, and it is impossible to enumerate half the writers who have done creditable work. William M. Baker, Frank Lee Benedict and J. W. De Forrest are writers of good novels. Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney writes excellent stories for young girls. Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton has published many clever novelettes. Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis portrays the sad pictures of life among the lower classes.

Blanche Willis Howard is a writer whose best books are doubtless still to come. Mrs. Francis Hodgson Burnett is the writer of many delightful books, the best of which are "That Lass o' Lowrie's," a novel of life in the Lancashire mines of England, and "Little Lord Fauntleroy," an exquisite book for children. "Little Lord Fauntleroy" achieved an unusual popularity. Thousands of copies of the books were sold and the story was dramatized.

Mrs. Anna C. Muller has written three morbid novels of remarkable strength. Marion Harland (Mary Virginia Terhune) is a popular writer of a mild and homely sort. John Habberton first made his reputation by the publication of "Helen's Babies." Constance Fenimore Woolson is a writer of skillful analytical novels. Mary Hallock Foote, artist and novelist, has devoted both pen and pencil to the more picturesque and refined side of life in the Western mountains. Mrs. Van Rensselaer holds a leading place among the critics of art and architecture. Edith Thomas is one of the best of the younger poets. Maurice Thompson is a talented poet and essayist.

General Lew Wallace will be remembered for two novels of striking originality and power. "Ben Hur," which was first published, is a beautiful story, told in a lofty style and with exquisite taste. "The Fair God" is totally unlike "Ben Hur," yet scarcely less fascinating.

Among the writers who have most recently attracted the attention of the public are W. W. Astor, whose historical novel, "Valentino," takes a permanent place among romantic stories, Henry Harland (Sidney Luska), the author of "As It Was Written," and George H. Picard, whose "A Matter of Taste" and "A Mission Flower" have attracted attention. J. A. Janvier has been successful in a series of short stories called "Color Studies." Laurance Hutton has written a "History of the American Stage" and "Literary Landmarks of London." One of the most gifted of dramatic critics, as well as a graceful poet, is William Winter, who has made valuable additions to dramatic biography.

"Gail Hamilton" (Abigail Dodge) is one of the most forcible of American writers, and devotes her pen to social, political and semi-scientific subjects.

Ruth Ellis (Saxe Holm) will long be remembered as the writer of some exquisite magazine sketches. Mary J. Holmes, Mrs. Southworth and Mrs. Evans may be mentioned because of their popularity; their literary merits are few. No young writer of recent times gave greater promise than Emma Lazarus, who, in criticism, fiction and poetry, was equally strong. She died at an early age.

There has always been an abundance of humor in American literature. Of this, Richard Alsop may be said to be the father. No newspaper is considered complete in America without its humorous paragrapher, and in this direction alone many have won renown. Seba Smith ("Major Jack Downing"), P. B. Shillaber ("Mrs. Partington"), George D. Prentice, George H. Derby ("John Phoenix"), Charles Farrar Browne ("Artemus Ward"), Henry W. Shaw ("Josh Billings"), David Ross Locke ("Petroleum V. Nasby"), Robert H. Newell ("Orpheus C. Kerr") and Samuel L. Clemens ("Mark Twain") are among the most noted of our many amusing writers. At present "Bob Burdette," "Bill Nye," Opie P. Read ("The Arkansas Traveler") and Eugene Field are well known. Charles Dudley Warner and Frank Stockton are humorists of a more delicate type.

James Parton is known for his many biographies of prominent men. Edward Everett Hale has written a large number of interesting stories, and is an authority on the early French and Spanish periods of this

country. Thomas Wentworth Higginson is a writer of much versatility. One of his last works is a young folk's history of the United States, which is condensed and readable. John Fiske is known as one of our most brilliant students of modern philosophy. Joseph Cook is one of our most radical thinkers. David Swing is known for his scholarly writings and lectures on religious topics. These last two men furnish a connecting link between writers and lecturers.

For many years Henry Ward Beecher stood at the head of the American platform. Robert Colyer and T. De Witt Talmage are among the most popular divines. In this connection it may be mentioned that in 1875 Cardinal McCloskey, the first Roman Catholic Cardinal in the United States, was consecrated in New York. John B. Gough has won more fame than any temperance lecturer in the country. Dwight L. Moody has been the most successful evangelist. Kate Field, Anna Dickinson, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Mary L. Livermore and Susan B. Anthony are the foremost women on the lecture platform.

Chief among the tragedians that have made great names in America are Edwin Forrest, Lucius Junius Booth, Edwin Booth, Lawrence Barrett, Charlotte Cushman and Mary Anderson. John McCullough has distinguished himself in heroic plays. James O'Neil has won a reputation in romantic dramas. The Davenports have been a family of excellent actors. Matilda Heron and Clara Morris are the leaders in what is known as the emotional drama. "Lotta" (Miss Crabtree) has the widest reputation of American soubrettes. W. J. Florence and his wife and Miss Ada Rehan have excelled in legitimate comedy. Joseph Jefferson is the greatest of American comedians and comes of a long line of actors.

It has not been the habit of Americans to cultivate the arts to any great extent, and they have usually relied upon other countries for their musicians. Among the Americans who have won fame as singers are Clara Louise Kellogg, Anna Louis Cary, Myron W. Whitney, Emma Nevada, Zelda Seguin, Thomas Karl and Jessie Bartlett Davis.

Nor should the influence of the Americans in journalism be ignored. With all its faults, flippancy and blemishes, the American newspaper represents, in enterprise, in fearlessness and in fairness, the highest type of journalism, and for the many delightful writers it has brought forward, if for no other reason, it should be fostered as an institution conferring a distinct and lasting good on the morals of the nation. Not to repeat the names of many of the writers already mentioned in this

chapter who have made their first reputation through the press, there is a brilliant list of men and women who have won success upon the newspapers alone. Among these may be mentioned James Gordon Bennett, Sr., founder of the *New York Herald*; Charles A. Dana, of the *Sun*; George D. Prentice, Henry Watterson, John Swinton, Samuel Bowles, Carl Schurz, Horace White, George Alfred Townsend ("Gath") White-law Reid, Joseph Howard, Jr., Olive Logan, Mrs. Margaret F. Sullivan, and many others.

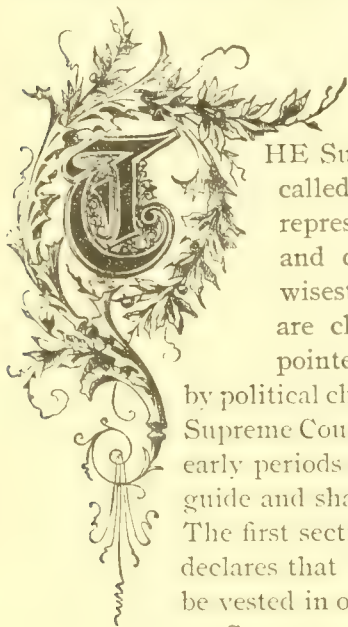
FOR FURTHER READING.

Some successful American books.
 Emerson's Essays.
 O. W. Holmes' "Breakfast-Table Series."
 Longfellow's Poems.
 Bryant's Poems.
 Stoddart's Poems.
 S. Lanier's Poems.
 Mrs. Burnett's "That Lass o' Lowrie's."
 Mrs. Burnett's "Little Lord Fauntleroy."
 Amelie Rives' "Famer Lass o' Piping Pebworth."
 Lew Wallace's "Ben Hur."
 Miss Murfree's "Tales of the Tennessee Mountains."
 Cable's "Tales of Creole Life."
 Miss Woolson's "East Angels."
 Bret Harte's "California Tales."
 The poems of Edith Thomas.

CHAPTER CIX.

The Supreme Court of the United States.

ITS ORGANIZATION AND DUTIES—THE LIVES OF THE CHIEF JUSTICES.



THE Supreme Court of the United States has been called the balance wheel of the Government. It represents permanence in the constantly moving and changing of the Federal machinery. The wisest and most conservative men of the nation are chosen for its bench, and the members are appointed for life, so that their positions are not affected by political changes. In recent years the proceedings of the Supreme Court have rarely attracted attention, but in the early periods of the Government, its decisions did much to guide and shape the public policy of the United States. The first section of the third article of the Constitution declares that the judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Superior Court and such inferior courts as Congress may, from time to time, authorize. The creation of such courts was consequently one of the first and most important duties of Congress. In September, 1789, the Judiciary Bill was approved. It provided that the Supreme Court should consist of a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, four of whom should constitute a quorum; but Associate Justices should have precedence according to the date of their commission, or if the commission of two or three should bear the same date, then according to the respective ages of those so commissioned. It divided the United States into thirteen districts, and created a court called the District Court, consisting of one judge for each district. Three circuits were also established, called the Eastern, Middle and Southern Circuits, each one including several of the districts. The office of marshal was created for each district, and each court was empowered to appoint its own clerk.

Immediately after the approval of the Judiciary Bill, President Washington nominated the first Justices of the United States Supreme Court. John Jay, of New York, was named Chief Justice, and William Cushing, of Massachusetts; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania; John Blair, of Virginia; Robert A. Harrison, of Maryland, and James Iredell, of North Carolina, were nominated as Associate Justices. John Rutledge, of South Carolina, was also appointed an Associate Justice, but he did not attend any session of the court until he took his seat as Chief Justice. The name of Edmund Randolph was at the same time sent to the Senate as Attorney-General. These nominations were all immediately confirmed. The salaries of the Justices were fixed by law—that of the Chief Justice at four thousand dollars, and each of his associates at thirty-five hundred dollars.

The first term of court was held in the city of New York in the month of February, 1790, when three Justices assembled in New York, only to find that there was no work for them to do. On the 10th of February court adjourned until the 2d of August, and the Justices went off to attend the circuit courts. The judiciary power, when first created, extended over thirteen States, each State constituting a district. In place of the original thirteen districts, there is now a district for each State, and more than one in several of the larger States. It is the duty of the Justices of the Supreme Court to hold court in its various districts, and this is called circuit duty. In the early days of the Government, several Justices objected to this added labor imposed by judiciary act, and Chief Justice Marshall was of the opinion that it was an unconstitutional requirement. It is said that he suggested to his associates the propriety of declining to sit in the circuit courts. The other Justices agreed with him, but as they had long acquiesced, it was considered wise to continue to perform the duty. So, from the organization of the court until the present day, with the exception of one year, at the close of the Administration of the elder Adams—when the law requiring such duty was repealed, only to be re-enacted—the Justices have continued to perform circuit duty. In consequence of the large number of cases growing out of the late Rebellion, Congress was compelled to pass a measure of relief, and in the year 1869, a number of circuit judgeships were created. The Justices of the Supreme Court were not, however, excused from circuit service, but their duties were so relaxed that each one is now compelled to attend only one term of circuit court in each district every two years. The judiciary power conferred by the Constitution has remained substantially the same to the present day.

In 1793, the court convened in Philadelphia, and there all terms were held until 1801, when the court followed the general Government to the city of Washington, where, in the year 1802, it was permanently located. For several years the Supreme Court found very little business to transact. In 1801, when John Marshall was appointed Chief Justice, the number of cases awaiting adjudication was only ten. For the next five years the average was about twenty-five a year. With the last thirty years, however, the cases have rapidly multiplied, and there have been so many cases on the docket that it has been almost impossible for the Justices to keep pace with the work.

It is just one hundred years (1889) since the first bench of the Supreme Court was appointed, and there have been but eight Chief Justices. The Attorney-General, though more properly belonging to the executive branch of the Government, being a member of the President's council, is, nevertheless, considered one of the Supreme Court. Until 1870, when the office of Solicitor-General was created, his duties were very heavy. The work is now divided, and the Solicitor-General gives his special attention to the court proceedings, while the Attorney-General is occupied in attending to State duties and giving legal advice to the President and heads of departments.

The name of John Jay, the first Chief Justice, should be specially venerated. He was also first Chief Justice of the State of New York. John Jay was born in the city of New York, December 12, 1745. His father was of French ancestry and his mother belonged to one of the oldest families of the Dutch colonies. At the age of seven years, he is said to have been of a very grave disposition and inclined to study. At eight, he was sent to a grammar school, and at fourteen, entered King's College, in the city of New York, where he was graduated in 1764. His father and grandfather had been merchants, but he selected the profession of the law. After being admitted to the bar, he associated himself with Robert R. Livingston, the future Chancellor. But they soon dissolved their business connection. His quiet professional life was broken by the contest between the colonies and the mother country. He was one of the first to speak for freedom. In 1774 he was a member of the convention which met at New York. Though only twenty-nine years old, he was one of the committee to draft an address to the people of Great Britain. This celebrated address is said to have come from his pen, and was composed and written in a room in an obscure tavern. While a delegate to Congress, Jay was elected, in 1776, to a seat in the Colonial Congress. This Congress comprised the best men

of the colonies. After the framing of the new Constitution, he was chosen to the place of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of New York, which he at once accepted, and Robert Livingston was appointed Chancellor. The Judiciary Bill, organized in the courts, was approved September 24, 1789. On the very day of its approval President Washington sent in the name of John Jay for the office of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1794 Chief Justice Jay was sent as special envoy to England to negotiate a treaty, which is known in history by his name. He resigned his position on the bench on his return from England, in 1795, having been elected Governor of New York. He retired from public life when only fifty-six years old, after holding many prominent positions, the best in the gift of the people. He was a pronounced revolutionist, and was one of the leading advocates of independence. He was a man of strong intellect, courageous and yet conservative in his actions. He lived for a quarter of a century in retirement, and died in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

Upon the resignation of Chief Justice Jay, President Washington immediately sent the name of John Rutledge to the Senate as the next Chief Justice. John Rutledge was a man of strong character, chief among the South Carolina revolutionary leaders, and first in station and influence among the many competitors, whose names are treasured in the history of his State. His education was the best that the colony could afford. Having made all the progress that he could in Charleston, he was sent to England, where he finished his education and studied law. He returned to Charleston and commenced the practice of his profession in 1781, being not quite twenty-two years old. He immediately rose to prominence. He commenced life under the most favorable auspices, and in the first part of his career, success met him at every step. He was elected Judge of the South Carolina Court of Chancery in 1784, and held many other responsible offices. The President appointed him during recess of the courts, and he took his seat in the August term of 1795, without having passed the ordeal of the approval of the Senate. On the 15th of December, the Senate refused to confirm his nomination, because he had opposed the Jay Treaty. The refusal to confirm him was due to the opposition of the Federal party, and not to any personal disqualification. Even had he been confirmed, he would not have been able to serve, for while his confirmation was pending, his strong and vigorous mind became unsettled, and his brilliant intellect was henceforth clouded. The Senate had scarcely set its seal of disapprobation upon his name when rumors reached Philadelphia that

he was insane. His malady was partly due to exposure in the service of his country. He died in the summer of 1800. He had many admirable traits. He was a typical Southern statesman, haughty, generous, frank and ardent in nature, yet not always discreet in action.

When the Senate refused to confirm Rutledge as Chief Justice, President Washington sent in the name of William Cushing, of Massachusetts, an Associate Justice of the Court. The Senate immediately confirmed him, but he held his commission only a week, when he resigned, preferring to remain in the less prominent position of Associate Justice. His name is, therefore, not counted among those of the Chief Justices.

Oliver Ellsworth was a Senator in Congress at the time that the Senate refused to confirm Rutledge, and as a member of the Federal party, he naturally voted against the President's nomination. Called to the bar a few years before the Revolution, he had early attained a high position in his profession. At the close of the Revolution, in which he had taken an active part, he returned to his native State to take his seat on the bench of the Connecticut Superior Court. He was born at Windsor, a small village in the interior of the State, April 29, 1745, and was brought up in the simple, frugal manner that prevailed in New England. He concentrated the whole power of his mind upon his chosen profession. He was a man of great application and excellent foresight. When he went to Congress, in 1778, he left the most lucrative law practice in Connecticut.

President Washington belonged to no party; he was, therefore, not estranged from his Federalist friends when they voted against the nomination of Rutledge. Justice Cushing having declined to serve as Chief Justice, Ellsworth was finally selected and promptly confirmed. He served honorably, making many wise decisions. He died November 20, 1807, in the sixty-third year of his age. The inscription on his tomb is a good summary of his character. It reads: "Amiable and exemplary in all relations of a domestic, social and Christian character, pre-eminently useful in all offices he sustained, whose great talent, under the guidance of inflexible integrity, consummate wisdom and enlightened zeal, placed him among the first and most illustrious statesmen who achieved the independence and established the Constitution of the American Republic."

John Marshall, whose judicial career extended over a period of thirty-five years, was the next Chief Justice. He was born in Germantown, Virginia, September 24, 1755. He early showed a remarkable

aptitude for study, and was deeply engaged in his law books when Patrick Henry's thrilling words caused him to leave his studies to become a member of the militia. He fought bravely in the Continental Army, and became captain in a company, under the command of General Washington. He was elected to the Virginia Legislature in 1792, but soon retired to practice the profession of the law. He was afterward called to the service of his country in a number of public offices. President Washington tendered him the office of Attorney-General, but he declined it on account of his large law practice. He was one of the most prominent figures of his time, and, upon the resignation of Ellsworth, Adams sent the name of Marshall to the Senate, where it was immediately confirmed. Many noted cases were tried before the Supreme Court while John Marshall was Chief Justice. The most celebrated was that of Aaron Burr, who was arraigned May 22, 1807. Burr was his own chief counsel, and great legal talent was exhibited at the trial. The greatest interest was awakened in the decision. Chief Justice Marshall delivered it in the most impressive manner, but a great many people were disappointed, and many adverse opinions were expressed. According to the letter of the law, the Chief Justice felt that he could not pronounce Aaron Burr guilty of treason, and he declared that the case against Burr was not proven. He was, therefore, the means of saving Aaron Burr's life. On July 6, 1835, Chief Justice Marshall died. He was a man of well-balanced mind, keen and inflexible in character. It is said that he had no frays in boyhood, no quarrels in manhood.

Roger Brooke Taney, who succeeded Marshall, was born March 17, 1777, in Calvert County, Maryland. His ancestors belonged to the early settlers. He was educated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, and was graduated in 1795. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1799. The same year he was a delegate to the General Assembly of Maryland, when less than twenty-three years old. He settled in Frederick and began the practice of law. After serving in the Maryland Senate, he removed to Baltimore, in 1823. While practicing law in Baltimore, he had charge of many celebrated cases in the Federal courts. In June, 1831, he was appointed Attorney-General at the reconstruction of President Jackson's Cabinet. This was a period of stormy debates, heated party discussions and bitter political controversies. The celebrated panic controversy is perhaps the most celebrated. There was a great discussion about removing the deposits from the United States Bank, and Taney was strongly in favor of the measure.

In September, 1833, President Jackson appointed him Secretary of the Treasury, and the 22d of the same month he issued his famous order for the removal of the deposits from the bank, or more correctly speaking, he directed that the collectors of revenue should cease to make their deposits in the bank. The accounts actually in the bank were to be left and drawn out at intervals in different sums, according to Government disbursements. The measure caused much criticism, and the discussion was transferred to the Legislature at the opening of the celebrated "panic session" of Congress, in 1833, the Senate refusing to confirm him as Secretary of the Treasury.

In January, 1835, President Jackson appointed Taney to fill a vacancy on the Supreme Bench, caused by the death of one of the Associate Justices. The Senate declined to act upon the appointment, as Taney had made many political enemies. When Chief Justice Marshall died, in the summer, the President again sent Taney's name to the Senate, this time as the nominee for the vacant place of the Chief Justice. This nomination was not confirmed until March, 1836. Chief Justice Taney took his seat upon the bench in January, 1837. On October 12, 1864, he died, in his eighty-fourth year, after a public life that was full of great events. One of the most celebrated opinions delivered by Justice Taney was the one regarding the celebrated Dred Scott case. This case had awakened universal interest at a time when abolition was one of the great questions of the day. This case decided that a "free negro of the African race, whose ancestors were brought to this country, is not a citizen within the meaning of the Constitution of the United States." This decision created wide-spread discussion and much indignation among Abolitionists. It was, however, technically correct under the Constitution. There was no sadder figure in Washington during the years of the war than that of the aged Chief Justice. He was shunned by the men who were willing to sacrifice their lives for the freedom of the slaves, and he was distrusted by the North. The harsh judgment formed of him then has been softened by time, and he is remembered as an upright and able judge.

Salmon P. Chase succeeded Justice Taney, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He was born in Cornish, New Hampshire, in 1808. He was poor, and he gained his education by hard work and self-denial. He was admitted to the bar of the District of Columbia in 1829. He soon became prominent in politics. He served in the United States Senate from 1849 to 1855, and was Governor of Ohio from 1855 to 1857. Belonging first to the Democratic party, he was the leader of the anti-

slavery element until the rise of the Republican party, of which he was one of the original organizers and most conspicuous members. A leading candidate for the presidential nomination in 1860, he was offered by his successful competitor, President Lincoln, a place in the first Republican Cabinet, in 1861, and left the Senate, to which he had just been chosen for a term of six years. As Secretary of the Treasury, he is noted as having performed the wonderful task of supplying the Government with money to carry on the war. The Bond and Legal Tender acts and the national bank system were, in great measure, originated by him. On the death of Justice Taney, President Lincoln appointed Chase to fill the vacant position of Chief Justice. He had never sat on the bench in any court, and he had not distinguished himself at the bar. He had, however, a thorough knowledge of the Government, and was of a strong, well-balanced mind and a calm, self-reliant disposition. His service on the Supreme Bench was cut short by his death, in 1873, at the age of sixty-five. The Dred Scott decision was set aside by him in a peculiar way. On February 1, 1865, Senator Sumner appeared in the Supreme Court, accompanied by a colored man, and said: "May it please the court, I present John S. Rock, a member of the bar of the State of Massachusetts, and move that he be admitted as a counsellor of this Court." The Chief Justice bowed and said: "Let him come forward and take the oath." The Supreme Court thus acknowledged the equality of the colored man.

Chief Justice Chase was virtually the founder of the great Republican party. He presided over the Senate during the impeachment of President Johnson. His public life was closely interwoven with the early slavery agitation, and his name occupies a high place in the history of the war epoch. Chief Justice Chase was succeeded by Morrison R. Waite, of Ohio, who was appointed by President Grant, in 1874. Justice Waite was born in Lyme, Connecticut, in 1816, and was graduated at Yale College, in 1837. He rapidly rose to an eminent position at the bar of the State of Ohio. In 1849, he was elected to the legislature, and, in 1873, was chosen as a delegate to the convention called to frame a new State constitution for Ohio. Chief Justice Waite has but a short political history. He was a man of sound judgment and conservative views, and discharged the duties of his high office in a creditable manner. On March 23, 1888, he died at his home in Washington City.

On May 1, 1888, President Cleveland nominated Melville W. Fuller to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Justice Waite. Melville

Weston Fuller was born in Augusta, Maine, on February 11, 1833. At the age of sixteen, he entered Bowdoin College, being graduated in 1853. He began the study of law in the office of his uncle, George Melville Weston, at Bangor. He also attended a course of lectures at the Harvard Law School. He began to practice law in 1855, entering into partnership with his uncle, the Hon. Benjamin A. J. Fuller, at Augusta. He was also associated with his uncle in the *Age*, then one of the leading democratic papers of the State. In 1856, he was elected to the common council of Augusta, and became its president. He was also the city solicitor. Although but twenty-three years of age, he showed remarkable talent as a lawyer, and achieved an enviable position at the bar. In 1856, he decided to go west, and he settled in Chicago. There his abilities were speedily recognized, and he at once established a large practice. In his law practice, he was noted for his thorough methods. Although naturally quick in his perceptions, he studied his cases exhaustively. As a fluent, earnest advocate, he has few equals. He was highly esteemed and respected by his associates at the Chicago bar.

He had quite an extensive practice in the Federal courts, and it is a curious coincidence that in the first case heard before the late Chief Justice Waite, Justice Fuller was the counsel. That was in 1874, and after that time he had many cases before the Supreme Court. In 1861, he was a member of the convention called to revise the Constitution of the State of Illinois. A year later he was elected to the Illinois Legislature, in which he served one term. A man of scholarly habits, familiar with several continental languages, and fond of philosophical research, Chief Justice Fuller is a man of broad culture and worthy of the high position to which he was called. His appointment was favorably received by all the legal profession throughout the country.

The organization of the Supreme Court has more than once been changed. Originally consisting of a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, it was enlarged, in 1807, by the addition of a sixth Associate. The States of Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee had come into the Union and were made into a new circuit, represented on the bench by Thomas Todd, of Tennessee. In 1837, two more Justices were added, and in 1863, a ninth Associate Justice was appointed to give the Pacific Coast a representative. This was thought to be a good policy at a time when the United States was engaged in the war of the Rebellion. Stephen J. Field, of California, was the appointee. When Justice Catron died, in 1865, Congress was in the midst of its long, serious trouble with

President Johnson. To prevent the appointment of a Democrat in sympathy with President Johnson's Southern policy, a law was passed, forbidding the filling of the existing vacancy, or of any future vacancy, until the number of Associate Judges should be reduced to six. The death of Justice Wayne, in 1867, reduced the number to seven. In 1869, a new law increased the number to eight, and President Grant appointed Justices Strong and Bradley.

The Supreme Court now consists of Chief Justice Fuller and Associate Justices Samuel F. Miller, of Iowa; Stephen J. Field, of California; Joseph P. Bradley, of New Jersey; John M. Harlan, of Kentucky; Horace Gray, of Massachusetts; Samuel Blatchford, of New York, and Lucius Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi. President Cleveland appointed Justice Lamar November 4, 1888, to succeed the late Justice William B. Woods, who died May 14, 1887. The death of Justice Stanley Matthews, on March 22, 1889, leaves a vacancy at present on the bench.

The sessions of the Supreme Court are now held in the room immediately over the library, a place full of interesting associations, for it was the old Senate chamber. It is in the form of a semi-circle. Its entrance is on the convex side, and the eye of the visitor is first attracted to the judicial bench. Above the bench is a gallery, not now used, but from which thousands have listened to exciting debates in the past. Previous to the erection of the grand wings—which, next to the dome, are the chief attractions of the Capitol—the court-room was located on the ground floor and reached by a dark passageway leading from the center of the building. This room is now the Law Library of Congress, and sometimes called "The Library of the Supreme Court." Its long rows of solid volumes, arranged for the convenience of the Judges, extend around the walls and presents no particular attraction to the public. The librarian's desk is an object of interest. Mahogany, dark with age, it is not handsome, yet it is the desk behind which Van Buren and several other Presidents sat out their terms. To the lawyer of the olden time, the room is full of reminiscences. It was here that the deep, sonorous tones of Webster were heard. It vibrated with the eloquence of Clay, the keen wit of Martin and the brilliant utterances of Wirt, Berrian, Butler and Crittenden.

Most of the seats in front of the Judges' bench are reserved for members of the bar, but on both sides of the room are seats for the public. The sessions of the court commence the first Monday in December. Between 11 and 12 o'clock each day the court enters the chamber, preceded by the marshal, who proclaims in a clear voice: "The Honorable

Chief Justice and Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States." Arrayed in robes of black silk, not unlike the clerical gowns, the Judges follow the Chief Justice and ascend the bench upon his right and left. The bench, however, has long been only a tradition in all our courts. Each Justice of the Supreme Court has a chair to suit his own ideas of what constitutes a comfortable seat. Some of the chairs have high backs and rest the head, some have low backs, some have cushions and some are not upholstered. The Chief Justice sits in the middle of the row and the other Justices are arranged according to the order of their commission. Before seating themselves, the Justices stand a moment in front of their chairs and all bow to the bar. The lawyers return the salute. Then the Judges sit down, the Associates being careful, however, not to occupy their chairs before the Chief Justice. The court is opened by the crier, who exclaims: "Oyez! Oyez! Oyez! all persons having business with the honorable Supreme Court of the United States are admonished to draw near and give attention, for the court is now sitting. God save the United States and this honorable court."

The proceedings of the Supreme Court are impressive and simple. The arguments are delivered in low, conversational tones. There is a tradition that the first Justices wore red gowns, but there is no authority for this. The first Judges of the Supreme Court did not adopt any peculiar fashion of wig as a mark of their office, but the short queue seems to have been worn by all. It is said that when Cushing, who was a member of the original court, arrived in New York and put on the big wig that he had worn on the Massachusetts bench, he was followed up Broadway by a mob of boys. He immediately hastened to a shop and bought a peruke of the style then in vogue.

Every Saturday during the terms of court, the Justices meet in the consultation room and discuss cases. All the cases must be examined by all the Justices, and when a decision is reached, the Chief Justice designates the Justice who is to write the opinion. Opinions are read and approved in the consultation room before they are delivered in open court. If there is a disagreement, the dissenting Justices prepare their opinions. The business of the Supreme Court is divided into two general classes: Cases in which it has original jurisdiction, and cases which come to it from the lower courts. If a citizen of the United States wishes to sue a foreign minister or council, he could not have recourse to any State tribunal, but must go directly to the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in habeas corpus

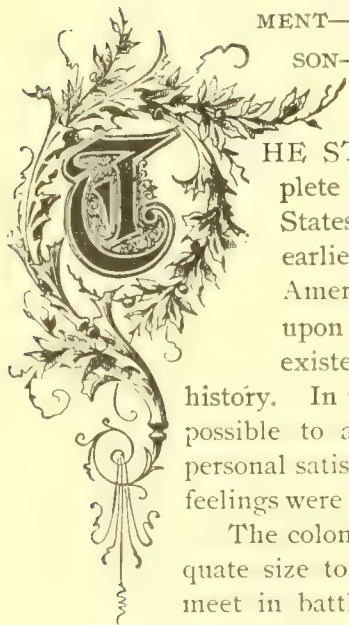
acts affecting persons in jail by the operation of the United States law. A large majority of the cases before the Supreme Court come under the appellate powers; that is, cases decided by the lower courts, and which involve what are called Federal questions, can be appealed to the United States Supreme Court. The largest number of cases decided by the Supreme Court come up from the lower tribunals.

In 1877, the court was called upon to furnish five of its members to the commission appointed to settle the disputed title of the presidency. The Electoral Commission, as it was called, was composed of five Justices, five Senators and five Representatives. The members of the Supreme Court who served were Justices Clifford, Field, Bradley, Miller and Strong.

CHAPTER CX.

The United States Navy.

ITS OLD ASCENDANCY—THE INVENTION OF THE MONITOR—THE DETE-
RIORATION OF THE NAVY, AFTER THE CIVIL WAR—APPOINT-
MENT OF THE ADVISORY BOARD — THE NEW
NAVY—IMPROVEMENTS IN NAVAL ARTILLERY—
ORGANIZATION OF THE NAVY DEPART-
MENT—SKETCH OF JOHN ERICS-
SON—USES OF THE NAVY.



THE STORY OF AMERICA would not be complete without a few words concerning the United States Navy. Pride in its navy was one of the earliest sentiments cherished in the hearts of the American people, and the gallant deeds performed upon the high seas in the first years of the nation's existence will not fade from the pages of its history. In referring to the navy of the past, it is impossible to avoid recalling the individual interest and personal satisfaction that all its members felt in it and such feelings were fostered by the superiority of its ships.

The colonies could not afford to build vessels of adequate size to contend with men-of-war that they had to meet in battle, but the few that they owned were well adapted to meet the small British cruisers, and to capture merchantmen. The frigates of this early day were small vessels, varying from six hundred to a thousand tons. The ships that were built in 1794 were constructed according to the most advanced ideas of the time, and the wooden vessels belonging to the United States and sailing the ocean between 1840 and 1860 were the finest in the world. The old frigate *Congress*, and the sloop *Portsmouth* were noble ships for their time, and models which other maritime nations imitated. During this greatest era of sailing vessels, from 1840 to 1860, steam began to be used, and was introduced as an auxiliary power. The naturally invent-

ive genius of American ship-builders enabled them to adopt the new force so successfully that the United States vessels continued to be prominent for many years as models from which other naval powers might copy. Before sailing vessels were finally abandoned, a number of large ships were built. These ships were a sort of a compromise between steamers and sailing vessels, and they did good service. The *Mississippi*, the *Missouri*, the *Susquehanna*, the *Saranac* and the *Powhatan* belonged to this class. They were launched between 1840 and 1850, and were a credit to the country. The *Powhatan* is now an interesting relic of this transition period of naval architecture. She was built of seasoned live oak, and retained so much of her original seaworthiness that, in 1886, she was still upon the list of the navy. In the last years of her usefulness, the *Powhatan* was employed in transporting relief crews from Aspinwall to Panama.

When those who realized the great future power of steam began to agitate the subject of supplanting sailing vessels by steamers, there was at first a great deal of hesitancy about making such a radical change. It was advocated that the new ships should be provided with full steam power, using sails as an auxiliary, but the old pride in the sailing vessels could not be made to yield at once to the new inventions. It was considered a great concession to admit steam at all, but the United States Government was not the only nation conservative in improving its navy. The other maritime powers pursued the same course, and for many years the United States retained the lead in producing the most creditable types of war ships.

In 1854, Congress passed a law ordering the construction of a new class of frigates. The *Merrimac* was the first of these new vessels to be launched, and she showed a great advance in ship-building. When she was sent to European waters she attracted great attention from foreign naval architects, who immediately copied her. The vessels built after the *Merrimac* model were the best ships of the time in the English navy. In 1858, what was known as the *Hartford* class of large corvettes began to be built. This class comprised the *Hartford*, the *Brooklyn*, the *Pensacola*, the *Richmond* and the *Lancaster*. These ships were imitated by England and France. They were of good speed and were used for cruising in foreign ports. Being built of wood, they required frequent repairs, and they are gradually being struck from the list of commissioned vessels.

The *Kearsarge* belonged to another type of war ship. The *Kearsarge* was built in 1859, and several vessels of the same pattern were

launched just before the war. During the war, vessels were built with a special regard for the purposes for which they were to be used. It was necessary to construct ships as rapidly as possible, in order to protect the coast, and what were known as "ninety-day gunboats" and "double-enders" were hastily built. Merchant steamers were also armed with such batteries as they could carry. This extraordinary increase of vessels, under the pressure of necessity, was not productive of permanent benefit to the navy, and the emergency ships soon disappeared when they were no longer needed. The *Juniata* and *Ossipee*, which were launched in 1852, belonged to the *Kearsarge* type and proved capable of good service.

The *Monitor* marked a new era in naval architecture and created a great sensation when it appeared. It was the invention of Captain John Ericsson, and saved the Union fleet at Hampton Roads. Captain Ericsson's inventive mind had early conceived the idea of the revolving turret in connection with the floating battery. In 1854, he had offered the device to Napoleon III, only to have it rejected; but he believed in it, if Napoleon did not, and, in 1861, proposed the novel idea to the United States Naval Department. His proposition met with encouragement, and he was given a contract to build his first vessel, after his long-cherished plan. By an extraordinary display of energy, the vessel was completed in one hundred days, and arrived at Hampton Roads March 9, 1862, just after the iron-clad *Merrimac* had sunk the *Cumberland* and the *Congress*, and was about to destroy the whole wooden fleet. The "cheesebox on a raft," as the Confederates called the *Monitor*, defeated the *Merrimac*, and the complete success of Captain Ericsson's invention revolutionized the navies of the whole civilized world.

The original *Monitor* was lost at sea; but other ships were built after Ericsson's peculiar model. There is no doubt that the *Monitor* was the first of the turreted vessels of the world. Although it made so great an innovation in naval construction, its essential principles were never universally approved by naval architects. The *Monitor* was like a raft carrying a revolving turret. It was constantly submerged by the waves, but its depth of draft insured stability. The circular form of the revolving turret was well suited to deflect the enemy's projectiles. Machinery was employed to move the turret and so point the guns, and there were many other advantages in the new war ship. Since the war, many improvements have been made in the monitors, and they form a conspicuous feature of modern fleets.

The double-turreted monitors, of which the *Terror* is an example,

were subsequently built. They were, unfortunately, constructed of wood, which had already been condemned abroad as an unsuitable material for building war ships. The duration of these wooden turreted vessels was not long, and new vessels of this order, three of which bear old names, were rebuilt of iron.

In 1874, some vessels known as the *Adams* class were built and launched. These vessels were of wood, convenient and handy, and were intended as cruisers in time of peace. The *Marion* class of sloops, launched about this time, were also built of wood. The *Alert* is one of three vessels that were built of iron in 1874. She was constructed as a laudable experiment to improve and change the material for construction. This effort was partly induced by pressure from the iron interest of the country. The change was, however, limited to the small class of diminutive vessels. This improvement in material was not, however, relied on, for in 1876 the *Trenton* was launched. She was built of wood, and represented the latest type of ships in the navy.

For fifteen years after the civil war, the navy steadily deteriorated and its decrepit condition was a reproach to the country. Its old reputation for proficiency and advancement was lost. The Government pursued a temporizing policy and maintained an economical attitude toward it. It was, however, not the intention that the navy should be neglected or abolished. Yearly appropriations were passed for its support, and its needs were frequently presented to Congress. The amounts appropriated were, however, not large enough to permit many new constructions of ships or artillery. Wooden ships were repaired where steel ships should have been built, and cast-iron guns were used where steel guns should have been placed.

The rapidity with which a large fleet of cruising vessels was built and brought together during the civil war, left the impression upon the public mind that, in case of any great emergency, the deficiency in the navy could be hastily supplied. Being favored by peace at home and abroad, it seemed wiser to allow other countries to improve upon naval equipments, believing that when the necessary time came, the United States could profit by the experiments of other maritime powers. After a long interval of indifference in regard to the navy, attention was at last centered on the subject. It was seen how rapidly naval improvements had been made in foreign countries, and how utterly the United States was distanced by the other maritime powers. A growing desire arose to repair the effects of past neglect, and Congress began to move in the matter. The origin of the first effort to improve

the navy dates from June, 1881, when the Advisory Board was appointed to consider and to report on the needs of the navy. This board, on November 7, 1881, decided that the United States Navy should consist of seventy unarmored cruisers of steel. It reported that there were thirty-two vessels in the navy fit for cruisers, and it indicated the character of the vessels that should be built. This board considered unarmored vessels, and did not discuss the subject of armored ships, although it expressed the opinion that such vessels were indispensable in time of war. It was some time before any practical results followed from the action of this board; but in 1883, Congress authorized the building of three steam cruisers and a dispatch boat. These vessels were the *Chicago*, the *Boston*, the *Atalanta* and the *Dolphin*. In the act of Congress, approved in March, 1885, four additional vessels were authorized. These were the first steps toward our new navy.

Up to the time of this new movement, no steel for ships had been rolled in the United States. Construction in American iron plates had been extensively carried on, but steel-plating was imported at great cost to the ship-builder. The question of naval material has always been a most important one. Before 1840, the science of naval construction had not advanced for two hundred years, all ships being built of wood. In the next two decades there was rapid progress, and since the war innumerable inventions have revolutionized ship-building.

The *Dolphin* caused much discussion when first launched, but she has proved a staunch vessel and capable of good service. Though not regarded as a vessel for fighting purposes, she is a ship of the class that is needed in all navies as a dispatch boat. Her advent in the navy marked a new period—the inauguration of the successful manufacture in the United States of American rolled steel ship-plating. The *Dolphin* is the first vessel, whether for naval or for commercial purposes, to be built entirely of steel of home manufacture. The *Dolphin* has proved herself eminently successful, and, with the exception of the steam yacht *Atalanta*, is the fastest sea steamer of her displacement built in the United States.

All the ships of the new navy are built of steel and modeled after well-tested designs. Fifteen of the vessels that were last authorized by Congress are (in 1889) in course of construction or but recently completed. On October 8, 1888, the United States cruiser *Baltimore* was launched at Philadelphia. The *Baltimore* was the first cruiser built for the new navy.

Before the Samoan disaster, the United States numbered ninety-two

serviceable vessels, fifteen of the first class, thirteen of the second class, forty-three of the third class and seven of the fourth class. These carried in all four hundred and eleven guns. Besides, there were twelve tugs and a number of wooden sailing vessels.

The new navy, when completed, will comprise of the armored vessels, the *Puritan*, the *Miantonomah*, the *Amphitrite*, the *Monadnock* and the *Terror*. All of these are iron-clad and each carry four 10-inch breech-loading guns, besides powerful secondary batteries. Of this class the *Maine* and the *Texas* were the last to be launched. In addition to these armored vessels, there are to be six iron-clad monitors, each carrying fifteen-inch smooth-bore guns. Of the unarmored vessels recently built, the *Chicago*, the *Boston*, the *Atalanta* and the *Dolphin* are all of steel. Last to be built are the *Charleston*, the *Baltimore*, the *Newark*, the *Yorktown*, the *Philadelphia*, the *San Francisco*, the *Concord* and the *Bennington*. They carry altogether ninety-four rifle guns. There has recently been built a steel cruiser, *Isis*, with three 12-inch guns and two second-class torpedo boats. Twenty-eight vessels in all have been added to the navy, and Congress appropriated an additional sum of two million dollars for floating batteries and other naval equipments. With the rehabilitation of the navy an effort was made to dispense with all the old vessels that had lost prestige with the improvement in ship-building. The few wooden ships which carry the flag to other countries were gradually condemned, and it has been estimated that in 1898 the entire wooden navy will have disappeared.

A few words about naval artillery cannot but be interesting. From the time of the invention of cast-iron cannon, in the year 1558, the improvement in artillery was very slow. It was thought that the cannon was such a wonderful invention that it was an impertinence to think of improving it. The first guns were muzzle-loaders. There had been rude attempts at breech-loading, but they were soon abandoned. The guns were of a number of calibres to suit the weight of the batteries on the ships. At the end of the eighteenth century what was known as an eighteen-pounder was the preferred gun for the main-deck batteries of frigates. The eighteen-pounder was the largest calibre used on the ships of the United Colonies of North America in the war of the Rebellion. In the war of 1812, the carronade was adopted as a spar-deck armament of frigates. The advantage of large calibre guns was firmly impressed upon those who occupied themselves with naval matters. As the fleet was developed, the twenty-four-pounders gave way to the thirty-two-pounders, and then the forty-two-pounders were

introduced. In time, the forty-two-pounder was, however, abandoned and the thirty-two-pounder was retained as the largest calibre. In the interval between 1840 and 1845, the thirty-two-pounder was replaced by a gun of the same calibre, of greater weight, called the long thirty-two-pounder. Up to this time, no explosive projectiles had been used with cannon, properly so-called. Mortars were originally used for projecting huge balls of stone at high angles. They were first used in 1624, but the unwieldy weight of the instruments prevented their use in the field. To provide for field use, light mortars were cast, which, when mounted on wheels, were denominated "howitzers." A mortar was never used in naval armament, although it has been employed upon ships engaged in bombarding cities. The success of explosive projectiles did not immediately lead to their application to horizontal firing from cannon.

The shell gun marks an important event in naval artillery. It required many years to bring it into general use, so as to displace the solid-shot gun. The first United States vessel, the battery of which was composed exclusively of shell guns, was the sloop-of-war *Portsmouth*, in 1856. With shell guns, much depended upon the successful working of the fuse of the shell, without which it was but a hollow substitute for a solid shot. The fuses which were used to explode the first bombs were long wooden plugs, bored and filled with powder. This fuse was improved upon, and the United States naval fuse became justly famous, one feature of it being a simple and an effective device called a water-cap, which guarded against injury from water when the shell was fired.

Previous to the introduction of shells, incendiary projectiles had been in use. They were simply intended to set fire to the ships of the enemy, and were not explosive. Hot shot was employed for this purpose, but it was used chiefly in batteries on shore. Within the twenty-five years following the civil war, marvelous advances have been made in artillery. Dynamite has entered into the composition of explosives, and the carrying power of all sort of firearms has been greatly increased. Steel guns have succeeded those of iron, and will be used in the artillery of the new navy. The necessity of a change in the naval artillery of the United States was recognized for a number of years, but it was impossible to obtain steel of domestic manufacture for the new guns. So the men-of-war were compelled to make their cruises abroad with antiquated batteries that were inferior to those carried by ships belonging to other nations.

The torpedo has had a great influence upon naval warfare. Millions of dollars have been spent by European powers in experimenting with this deadly implement of destruction. Its introduction into the artillery of the navy necessitates an additional fleet of torpedo boats. In former times, a fleet consisted simply of battle ships. Dispatch boats were added later. The torpedo had made it necessary to adopt a new class of vessels, called the "torpedo boat captures." The duty of these boats is to destroy the torpedo boats of the enemy. They have great speed and are provided with powerful batteries. The English and French governments were the first to adopt them.

In the early period of its history there was no such branch of the Government as the Department of War. In the first of our great wars (that of 1812) there were only twenty ships in the navy, the organization of which was of the simplest character; but these few ships were the best of their class afloat. There being no organization of policy, each commander of a vessel was compelled to act for himself; thus Hull, Decatur and Porter—all of them young men—made great reputations for themselves by their sagacity and courage. In 1815 a board of three officers was appointed, styled the Naval Commissioners, who had charge of all the work of the department. The board was to perform, under a secretary, all the ministerial duties of his office. In 1845, this board of commissioners was replaced by the bureau system, which, with some changes, has continued until the present time. The bureaus, when first organized, were not qualified to direct the navy. As a working force, the navy was without any direction. There was no responsible officer to superintend the training of officers or the enrollment, assignment and disciplining of seamen. No one was competent to attend to the disposition of vessels or other important work. The effect of this half-reform became evident in 1861, when the department was suddenly plunged into war. No one had the faintest idea what to do or whose business it was to do anything. The chiefs of the bureaus had various duties. One managed the navy yards, another had charge of the construction of ships and a third superintended the building of guns. A fourth supplied provisions. The department had no office organized for staff work; it contained no information upon which to act; it had no machinery by which information could be procured, and at this critical time the department, which had been maintained for sixty years for the service of the country, was found to be entirely wanting in the means of conducting war. At this time, Captain Fox was appointed chief clerk of the Navy Department, and he did a lasting service in

organizing an efficient administration of naval affairs, and in appointing able men to carry out his plans. The number of the war bureaus was increased during the war to eight. In 1882, an important office was added to these bureaus. It was called the Office of Naval Intelligence, and was created for the purpose of collecting and systematizing information concerning the resources and movements of foreign navies. This office was a most important improvement in the management of the naval department.

Any account of naval progress would be incomplete without a sketch of John Ericsson, who gave such an impetus to naval construction by his wonderful inventions. His life was eventful, and the most useful part of it was linked with the history of his adopted country, America. John Ericsson was born in Sweden, in 1803. At eleven years of age, he was appointed cadet of engineers, and two years later was chosen as a leveler on the grand ship canal between the Baltic and the North Sea, planning the work for over six hundred men. In 1820 he became an ensign in the Swedish army, rising rapidly to the rank to lieutenant and captain. In 1825 he invented a condensing flame engine, and the next year went to England to introduce it. Coal, however, did not effect the same results as pine wood, and the invention was not a success. In 1827 Ericsson resigned from the Swedish army and went to England, where he devoted himself to the invention of various devices to be used at sea. In 1829 he invented the steam carriage "Novelty," and beat Stevenson's "Rocket" in a trial contest. In 1833 he invented the caloric engine, which excited the wonder of the scientific world, and resulted, two years later, in the completion of the caloric ship *Ericsson*. In 1839, at the urgent request of Commodore Stockton, of the United States Navy, Ericsson came to the United States and applied his screw propeller principle to the war ship *Princeton*. At the World's Fair in London, in 1851, Ericsson obtained the prize for his numerous inventions. On March 9, 1862, he had the satisfaction of seeing his long-cherished turret plans carried out in the *Monitor*.

In 1869 Ericsson built a fleet of thirty vessels for the Spanish Government for the protection of Cuba. In 1883 he constructed his sun motor as a last gift to science. He contributed many scientific articles to various magazines. Many honors were conferred on John Ericsson by Sweden, and in July, 1888, on the attainment of his eighty-fifth year, he was especially honored by a visit from the representatives of the King of Sweden, who sent him a token of appreciation of his

genius. He was made a Knight of the Royal Orders of Denmark, and was awarded the grand cross of naval merit by King Alphonso, of Spain. In character, Captain Ericsson was singularly quiet and retiring. He was very little known in the neighborhood where he lived, and he was an active man up to the time of his death. One of the excuses he gave for not receiving visitors on his last birthday was that he was "too busy, as he had not yet completed his life-work." One of the curious traits of his character was the total absence of anxiety to personally see the workings of any of his machinery. He was never on board the *Destroyer* but once after she was completed. In fashioning an invention, he worked almost entirely from drawings, and knew just as well how every part of the finished machinery looked, or should look, as though he had handled it a thousand times. Captain Ericsson died March 9, 1889, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

The United States Navy will henceforth rank with the navies of the other maritime powers. The real use of the navy is to provide the country with means of carrying on war, and it may seem that there is little necessity of a navy in time of peace. It has been said that, inasmuch as the national policy has been peaceful, and inasmuch as the United States has never been allied with any foreign power, there will be no danger of future naval combats. If, however, the Government should neglect the means of national defense, the country is liable to suffer most unexpectedly. No country is secure from an invasion of its rights. Within the last hundred years, the United States has been at war six times, including the French hostilities in 1798. The causes that brought about these wars have been adjusted, but new causes may arise at any time. In the event of an European war (and there are always rumors of some foreign complication) the position of the United States as an unarmed neutral would be extremely uncertain. The navy protects American interests by its moral force as well as its maritime strength. If it were abolished, it would be impossible for the United States to maintain its standing as a great nation.

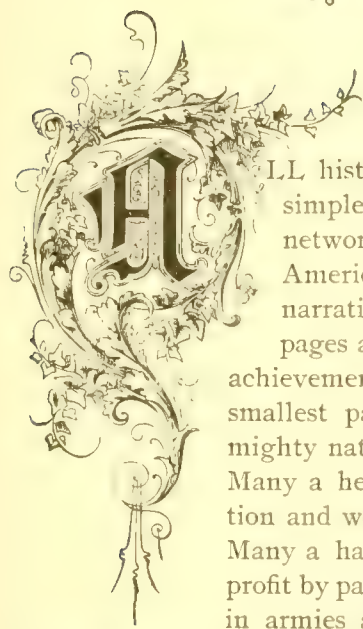
The duties of the navy, apart from the necessities of war, are numerous. It was stated by the first Advisory Board that vessels of the navy were required for "surveying deep-sea soundings, the advancement and protection of American commerce, exploration, protection of American life and property endangered by war between foreign countries, and service in support of American policy where foreign government is concerned."

The navy has been called the police of the ocean, and it is of

inestimable service in protecting commerce. In exploration, it has sent out expeditions of such a daring character as to astonish the world. When reorganized and fully equipped, it will be once more a credit to the country, and a means by which great things may be accomplished. It is maintained at an annual expenditure of from twelve to twenty millions, and is a costly adjunct to the Government.

CHAPTER CXI.

What's To-morrow?



ALL history is but a superficial record. Beneath the simple outline of great events, there is a complex network of human experiences. "The Story of America" is fraught with vivid interest. It is a narrative that is most dramatic in incident—its pages are illumined with glorious deeds and great achievements. Yet the written history is but the smallest part of the whole wonderful story of the mighty nation that was born one hundred years ago. Many a hero who suffered hardships, endured privation and worked patiently is unchronicled in books. Many a hard-fought battle is unknown to those who profit by past struggles. The heroes did not all enlist in armies and the battles were not all fought with sword and musket. Those who cultivated fruitful fields and established new homes in the wilderness were all heroes, and the courage that they displayed was not less noble than that which led others to the cannon's mouth. War ships and naval artillery, marching regiments and Gatling guns constitute a more impressive vocabulary than log houses and plowshares, struggling colonies and farming implements, yet all were of equal importance in founding a new nation. It is natural to dwell upon the great days in history—days when victorious battles were fought and wonderful discoveries were made—yet such days are composed of hours and moments that are important in individual histories of which the world never hears. As individual histories are the elements of national histories, those who read "The Story of America" aright will remember the struggles and disappointments that underlie many of its pages, and helpful lessons may be drawn. The history of the past is one of self-reliance and triumphant effort, but it has no more significance than the daily record which belongs to the present.

One by one, the great men who were illustrious upon the battle fields of the the Rebellion are passing away. Many of the brave hearts that beat with patriotic ardor are stilled forever. There are no new heroes, and at first thought it seems as if a common-place epoch had been reached. Columbus voyaging to an unknown land, Ponce de Leon searching for the fountain of youth, and Pocahontas saving the life of Captain John Smith, are figures conspicuous in the romantic period, when daring explorers sailed from foreign shores to claim the new country. The landing of the Puritans on Plymouth Rock and their subsequent privations have furnished material for many a tale and poem. The early days of New York, Boston and New Orleans are tinged with strangely romantic incidents. The frequent wars are each memorable for wonderful deeds of valor. A peculiar glamour is thrown about the lives of Washington and Lafayette. The early statesmen are remembered as extraordinary men and the speeches of the orators of the past stir the hearts of rising generations. Looking backward, the present appears devoid of all that made the past glorious. But peace reigns quietly, prosperity sheds a tranquil influence over the nation and there is no longer need of fervid oratory and martial music. The old chronicles of battles and bloodshed are finished. Science has so improved the implements of war that any future combats would be mere massacres, and all nations are rising above the practice of what is only "splendid murder."

The new history will be a chronology of intellectual achievements. The Americans surpass all other people in their inventive genius. The names that will ornament the future history of the United States will be those that have become famous because associated with men who have helped the progress of the world by some brilliant thought or ingenious experiment. Few characters will stand out in bold relief among the many people of the nation. There will be no more hero worship. It is no longer the fashion to exalt men above their true worth. The age is critical and recognizes the human infirmities of its great men, although it still pays tribute to the superior qualities by which they excel. The number of those who will be honored will be diminished, because every year the standards of excellence are higher. Education is no longer for the few, but for the many. Although the present may be unmarked by any external crisis, it is a time of great intellectual activity, and future years will bring a rich harvest of wisdom and justice.

In the twenty-five years since the Civil War, the nation has attained a prosperity that is marvelous. Time has worked out many

of the problems that puzzled the statesmen of a quarter of a century ago. From the ruins of the war, a new South has risen—a South rich in the traditions of a brilliant past and heroic in its efforts to make a splendid future. And to-day, who shall judge the South harshly? In all sincerity, it defended an institution which had been introduced by those who, in the early days of the colonies, represented the best interests of the struggling people. Its errors of judgment were due to wrong education—to inherited theories that were not in harmony with the spirit of humanity or independence. It staked all in protecting what it considered its rights—it lost everything. Many gallant soldiers laid down their lives in defending their native States, and among the Confederate generals, there were men of whom the whole nation might have been proud. In the years that are coming, broader education and greater liberality of opinion will heal all differences. In sentiment, there will no longer be any North or South, only one great nation that remembers those who sleep in soldiers' graves as brothers, not as friends or foes.

"The Story of America" is but just begun. The chapters that are being added every day will tell of buying and selling, sowing and reaping. Commerce will widen, new lands will be cultivated. The external history may contain little that is new or fascinating, yet the age will be rich with grand opportunities for better living. Already great things are being accomplished. New paths of science and literature are opened. The future annals of the nation will be written with a wider knowledge, a deeper insight. Yet what of the morrow?

NATURALIZATION LAWS

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

The conditions under and the manner in which an alien may be admitted to become a citizen of the United States are prescribed by sections 2,165-74 of the Revised Statutes of the United States.

DECLARATION OF INTENTION.

The alien must declare upon oath before a Circuit or District Court of the United States, or a District or Supreme Court of the Territories, or a court of record of any of the States having common law jurisdiction and a seal and clerk, two years at least prior to his admission, that it is, bona fide, his intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or State, and particularly to the one of which he may be at the time a citizen or subject.

OATH ON APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION.

He must, at the time of his application to be admitted, declare on oath, before one of the courts specified, "that he will support the Constitution of the United States, and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to every foreign prince, potentate, State, or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, State or sovereignty of which he was before a citizen or subject," which proceedings must be recorded by the clerk of the court.

CONDITIONS FOR CITIZENSHIP.

If it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court to which the alien has applied that he has resided continuously within the United States for at least five years, and within the State or Territory where such court is at the time held one year at least; and that during that time "he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same," he will be admitted to citizenship.

TITLES OF NOBILITY.

If the applicant has borne any hereditary title or order of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of the same at the time of his application.

SOLDIERS.

An alien of the age of twenty-one years and upward who has been in the armies of the United States, and has been honorably discharged therefrom, may become a citizen on his petition, without any previous declaration of intention, provided that he has resided in the United States at least one year previous to his application and is of good moral character.

MINORS.

An alien under the age of twenty-one who has resided in the United States three years next preceding his arriving at that age, and who has continued to reside therein to the time he may make application to be admitted a citizen thereof, may, after he arrives at the age of twenty-one years, and after he has resided five years within the United States, including the three years of his minority, be admitted a citizen; but he must make a declaration on oath and prove to the satisfaction of the court that for two years next preceding it has been his bona fide intention to become a citizen.

CHILDREN OF NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

The children of persons who have been duly naturalized, being under the age of twenty-one years at the time of the naturalization of their parents, shall, if dwelling in the United States, be considered as citizens thereof.

CITIZENS' CHILDREN WHO ARE BORN ABROAD.

The children of persons who now are or have been citizens of the United States are, though born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, considered as citizens thereof.

PROTECTION ABROAD TO NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

Section 2,000 of the Revised Statutes of the United States declares that "all naturalized citizens of the United States, while in foreign countries, are entitled to and shall receive from this Government the same protection of persons and property which is accorded to native-born citizens."

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE.

The right to vote comes from the State and is a State gift. Naturalization is a Federal right and is a gift of the Union, not of any one State. In nearly one-half the Union aliens (who have declared intentions) vote and have the right to vote equally with naturalized or native-born citizens. In the other half only actual citizens may vote. The Federal naturalization laws apply to the whole Union alike, and provide that no alien male may be naturalized until after five years' residence. Even after five years' residence and due naturalization he is not entitled to vote unless the laws of the State confer the privilege upon him, and he may vote in one State (Michigan) six months after landing, if he has immediately declared his intention, under United States laws, to become a citizen.

LIST OF PRESIDENTS AND VICE-PRESIDENTS.

| No. | PRESIDENT
Term of Office. | STATE | VICE-PRESIDENT. |
|-----|---|----------------------|---|
| 1 | George Washington,
Two terms, 1789-97. | - - Virginia. | - - John Adams. |
| 2 | John Adams,
One term, 1797-1801. | - - - Massachusetts. | Thomas Jefferson. |
| 3 | Thomas Jefferson,
Two terms, 1801-09. | - - Virginia. | - - Aaron Burr.
George Clinton. |
| 4 | James Madison,
Two terms, 1809-17. | - - - Virginia. | - - George Clinton.
Elbridge Gerry. |
| 5 | James Monroe,
Two terms, 1817-25. | - - - Virginia. | - - Daniel D. Tompkins. |
| 6 | John Q. Adams,
One term, 1825-29. | - - - Massachusetts. | John C. Calhoun. |
| 7 | Andrew Jackson,
Two terms, 1829-37. | - - - Tennessee. | - John C. Calhoun.
Martin Van Buren. |
| 8 | Martin Van Buren,
One term, 1837-41. | - - New York. | - Richard M. Johnson. |
| 9 | William H. Harrison,
One month, 1841. | - Ohio. | - - - John Tyler. |
| 10 | John Tyler,
Three years and 11 months, 1841-45. | - - - Virginia. | |
| 11 | James K. Polk,
One term, 1845-49. | - - - Tennessee. | - George M. Dallas. |
| 12 | Zachary Taylor,
One year and 4 months, 1849-50. | - - - Louisiana. | - - Millard Fillmore. |
| 13 | Millard Fillmore,
Two years and 8 months, 1850-53. | - - New York. | |
| 14 | Franklin Pierce,
One term, 1853-57. | - - - New Hampshire. | William R. King. |
| 15 | James Buchanan,
One term, 1857-61. | - - Pennsylvania. | J. C. Breckinridge. |

| No. | PRESIDENT.
Term of Office. | STATE. | VICE-PRESIDENT. |
|-----|--|---------------|-------------------------------------|
| 16 | Abraham Lincoln, - -
One term and 1 month. | Illinois. - - | Hannibal Hamlin.
Andrew Johnson. |
| 17 | Andrew Johnson, - -
Three years and 11 months. | Tennessee. | |
| 18 | Ulysses S. Grant, - -
Two terms, 1869-77. | Illinois. - - | Schuyler Colfax.
Henry Wilson. |
| 19 | Rutherford B. Hayes, - -
One term, 1877-81. | Ohio. - - | William A. Wheeler. |
| 20 | James A. Garfield, - -
Six and a half months, 1881. | Ohio. - - | Chester A. Arthur. |
| 21 | Chester A. Arthur, - -
Three years, 5 and a half months, 1881-85. | New York. | |
| 22 | Grover Cleveland, - -
One term, 1885-89. | New York. - - | Thos. A. Hendricks. |
| 23 | Benjamin Harrison, - -
1889-. | Indiana. - - | Levi P. Morton. |

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SEC. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branches of the State legislature.

No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and, excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such a manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each shall have at least one Representative; and, until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the

executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SEC. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year, and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office as President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside, and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment according to law.

SEC. 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once every year; and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SEC. 5. Each house shall be the judge of elections, returns and qualifications of its own members; and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SEC. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SEC. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and

proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But, in all such cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in case of a bill.

SEC. 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts, and to provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes.

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subjects of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

To establish post-offices and post roads.

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court.

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations.

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water.

To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

To provide and maintain a navy.

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress.

To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such districts (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the States in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings.

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SEC. 9. The migration or importation of such persons, as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year One Thousand Eight Hundred and Eight; but a tax, or duty, may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census, or enumeration, hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No taxes or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of

appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States, and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SEC. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant a title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

SEC. 11. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted.

The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose, by ballot, one of them for President, and if no person have a majority, then, from the five highest on the list, the said House shall, in like manner, choose the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be Vice-President. But, if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the Vice-President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to the office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall be elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of the President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SEC. 12. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of the respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur, and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law, but the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officer as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have the power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SEC. 13. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SEC. 14. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION I. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SEC. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may, by law, have directed.

SEC. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SEC. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by the general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SEC. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be

delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SEC. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union, but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any States be formed by the junction of two or more States or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SEC. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature can not be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress, provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year One Thousand Eight Hundred and Eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of this article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several States, legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution, but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of Our Lord, One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names. (Signed by the members of the Convention).

AMENDMENTS.

At the first session of the First Congress, held in the city of New York, and begun on Wednesday, the 4th of March, 1789, many amendments to the National Constitution were offered for consideration. The Congress proposed ten of them to the legislatures of the several States. These were ratified by the constitutional number of State legislatures by the middle of December, 1791. Five other amendments have since been proposed and duly ratified, and have become, with the other ten, a part of the National Constitution.

The following are the amendments:

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or to the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a

free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the person or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishment inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against the United States, by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be Vice-President, if

such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SEC. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of laws.

SEC. 2. Representatives shall be appointed among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote, at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representative in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SEC. 3. No person shall be Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the

United States, or as a member of any State legislature or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SEC. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred by payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States or any State shall assume to pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SEC. 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION 1. The right of the citizens of the United States shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or in any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SEC. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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